

JOURNAL OF THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

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JANUARY 1940

ORDINARY MEETING.

21 November, 1939.

CLEMENT DANIEL MAGGS HINDLEY, K.C.I.E., M.A., President,
in the Chair.

The Council reported that they had recently transferred to the class of

Members.

AOS MICHAEL BOSTANDJI, B.Sc.	JAMES REED, B.Sc. (<i>Edin.</i>).
E WILLIAM COVER.	JOHN MAWSON ROUNTHWAITE, B.Sc.
ALEXANDER DAVIDSON, B.E. (<i>Bel-</i>	(<i>Durham</i>).
AM HOWARD JOHNSON, M.A. (<i>Can-</i>	ALFRED OBRÉ WHITEHOUSE, B.Sc. (<i>Eng.</i>)
	(<i>Lond.</i>).

had admitted as

Students.

RD ADAMS, B.Sc. (<i>Leeds</i>).	JOHN EDWARD VALENTINE BLOMFIELD.
AM HAROLD CLARK AITCHISON.	ROBERT WILLIAM BOTTJER.
JOHN FRANCIS ALLEN-WILLIAMS,	WILLIAM RAGLAN PEDLOW BOWDEN.
(<i>Cantab.</i>).	ROBERT ANGUS BRIDGEFORD.
SABAPATHY AMBALAVANAR.	JAMES MACKAY BRUCE.
IS ARNOT ANDERSON.	CECIL FRANK BRYER.
Y APPEL.	MALCOLM GRAHAM BURGESS.
ATNAM RAJA ARULAMBALAM.	ROBERT RANDOLPH HENRY BURSEY.
D ATKINSON, Jun.	IAN DOUGLAS FOSTER CAMERON.
E BALL.	JAMES WATSON CAMERON.
K RICHARD BARBER, B.Sc. (<i>Birm-</i>	DOUGLAS CARRICK.
<i>am</i>).	WILLIAM JOHN CAPSTICK CAVE.
ON MILTON BARHAM.	NEO POH CHOON.
AM BAENES.	EDUARD BERNARD CLOETE, B.Sc. (<i>Wit-</i>
OND BARRETT.	<i>watersrand</i>).
ES HAYWARD PETER BAYNTUN.	REGINALD CHARLES COATES.
ARTHUR BAYS.	KENNETH PAUL GRAY COBB.
BEARD.	CHARLES THOMAS COLE.
ES NORMAN BENOY.	JOHN LEWIS CRAIG.
HERBERT BEST.	ANTHONY WILLIAM ARTHUR CRAWSHAW.
UNDER JOHN BLAKE.	NOËL VICTOR CROSS.

ROBERT ERNEST DAWSON, B.Sc. (*Aberdeen*).

ARTHUR FRANCIS DEFFERARY, Jun.

HARRY DOOTSON.

RENNIE FRANK DUGGAN.

ROBERT DUNCAN.

PHILIP DAVID EDMONDSON.

DENYS WILLIAM ENGLAND, B.Sc. (*Glas.*).

HUGH DUNCAN FINDLAY, B.Sc. (*Glas.*).

CHARLES HAROLD ALLEN FOSTER, B.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*).

GEOFFREY BEAUMONT FOSTER.

KUMARASINGHAM GANESAN.

CHITTA PRIYA GHOSE, B.Sc. (*Calcutta*).

BERNARD RICHARDSON GOODSIR.

THOMAS WILLIAM GORNALL.

CYRIL GOULBORN.

PERCY JOHN GREAVES, B.A. (*Cantab.*).

EDWIN LESLIE GREGORY.

RAYMOND GORDON RIDER HAGGARD.

MERVYN JOHN BEAUMONT HAYNES.

GORDON NICOL HENDERSON.

GEOFFREY ARTHUR DE COURCY HILLMAN, B.A. (*Oxon*), B.E. (*W. Australia*).

DOUGLAS JUDSON HOLMES.

DENNIS HAROLD HONYCHURCH.

JOSEPH HOWAT.

FREDERICK GEORGE HUTTON.

WILLIAM IMRIE.

FRED ROBERT JARVIS.

THOMAS PHILIP JOHNSTONE.

ALAN WILLIAM JONES.

SUBRAMANIAM KATHIRITHAMBY.

LEO THOMAS BERNARD KEALEY.

LAWRENCE LEE KENCHINGTON.

ARTHUR GLANVILLE KENNEDY.

KENNETH EDWIN KEVERN.

HAROLD CARLON LAWESON.

HUGH RICHARD BLAIR LEIGHTON.

HOWARD LLEWELYN LEWIS.

ROBERT ARTHUR DRYSDALE LINDSAY.

STANLEY GRENVILLE WILFRED LONG.

JOSEPH GUY LUBBOCK, B.A. (*Cantab.*).

MALCOLM HUGH DEES McALPINE.

HAMILTON BLAIR McDOWELL.

JOHN FALCONER McFARLANE.

FINLAY MALCOLM McNAUGHTON.

STANLEY REGINALD MANNERS.

THOMAS DERRICK MILLER.

ROBERT WISHART MILNE.

WALTER WILLIAM MICHAEL MILTON.

EDWARD PARR WILMOT MORGAN, B.Sc. (*Bristol*).

GEORGE ALFRED MOULTON.

CHARLES GOWER NEVILLE.

HENRY COCKROFT NEWTON, B.Sc. (*Aberdeen*).

ERIC SPENCER NORRIS.

LEONARD DOUGLAS TURNER OSTIC.

JOHN EDWARD PARTRIDGE.

KENNETH IVORY NOEL PATON.

JOHN HERBERT PEAN.

JOHN PEEL.

CEDRIC HOWARD PENDLEBURY.

DAVID PHIMISTER.

RICHARD THOMAS POOLE.

CHARLES GEOFFREY PRICE.

RAY LEIGHTON PRYCE.

FREDERICK BERNARD RAYMER.

ALISTAIR JAMES ROBERTSON.

GEOFFREY ERNEST ROBSON.

JOHN RUNCIE.

HENRY DENNIS RUSSELL.

ENDRE SCHWARCZ.

DOUGLAS ANDREW SCOTT.

JOHN SCRIMGEOUR, B.Sc. (*St. And.*).

NANJI NAGSI SHAH, B.E. (*Bombay*).

HARI SINHA, B.E. (*Bombay*).

SUDHIR KUMAR SINHA.

WILLIAM EDWARD HASLAM SLOAN, (*Manchester*).

GEOFFREY SNOWBALL.

HARRY SOUTH.

HARRY ARTHUR MARTIN STOWER, (*Bristol*).

JAMES STURTON, B.Sc. (*Aberdeen*).

HUGH BROWN SUTHERLAND.

FRED HUGH SYKES.

GARNESSE CECIL TROWER.

PHILIP RAMSSEY TURLAND.

GEOFFREY PERCY TURNER.

JOHN EDWARD TURNER.

ROBERT COWAN TWEDDEL.

EDWARD JULIAN UPTON.

OLIVER JOSEPH JEPARATNAM WATSON.

GEORGE FREDERICK WEAVER.

KENNETH WESTERBY.

KENNETH CHARLES WESTHORN.

ATHELSTAN WHALEY, B.A. (*Cantab.*).

JOHN WHITE.

DON NOEL GRENVILLE WICKRAMASINGHE.

JOHN PURCHASE WILKINS.

LOUIS WIMALARATNAM WILLIAMS.

ROBERT FREDERIC WOODHEAD.

WILFRED WRIGHT.

the Scrutineers reported that the following had been duly elected as

Members.

NALD HERBERT BLAKE, M.C.
RT HYDE BUCKLEY.

PAUL COULTHARD DEWHURST.
HENRY CODDEN TURNER.

Associate Members.

McCRAE ADAMS, Stud. Inst. C.E.
ERT ACKROYD ALLATT, M.Sc. (*Leeds*),
d. Inst. C.E.
TER JACK ALLEN, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
Y SYDNEY ALLWRIGHT, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
BERT ST. CLAIR PORTER ANDREWS.
EST BALASINGHAM ANKETELL, B.Sc.
as.).
ARMOUR, Stud. Inst. C.E.
DUDLEY BENHAM, B.E. (*New Zea-*
d).
GLAS JAMES BRIGHT, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
TER JACK BROOME.
ARD JOHN BUCKLEY, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.).
ELES WILLIAM BURNETT, B.Sc.
as.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
EY BUXTON, B.Eng. (*Sheffield*).
CALWELL, Stud. Inst. C.E.
RY CANNELL, M.Eng. (*Liverpool*),
nd. Inst. C.E.
ES CARBERRY, B.Sc. (*Belfast*).
LIAM GEORGE CARTER, B.Sc. (*Bristol*).
PH WARD SAMUEL CASEBOURNE,
nd. Inst. C.E.
RLES REGINALD RICE CHAPLIN, Stud.
st. C.E.
N EDMUND LAYCOCK CLEMENTS, B.A.
antab.).
HATCH COLES, B.Eng. (*Sheffield*),
ud. Inst. C.E.
LIAM DAVID COOKE, B.Sc. (*Edin.*).
GLAS HARLOW COOMBS, B.Sc. (*Lond.*).
N CAVE COTTON, Stud. Inst. C.E.
IP BERNARD COX, B.Sc. (*Birming-*
m).
N CLIVE CROSSLAND-HINCHLIFFE,
Sc. Tech. (*Manchester*).
L EDGAR CRUICKSHANK, B.Sc. (*Aber-*
en).
N WALTER GWYNNE CURTIS, B.Sc.
ristol).
ERT WILLIAM DALE, Stud. Inst. C.E.
EST CECIL DE ALWIS, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.).
BERT ALFRED DEAN, Stud. Inst. C.E.
LIAM ERIC DIGBY, B.Sc. (Eng.)
nd.).
LIAM GEORGE DOUCH.
OLD GORDON DOUGLAS, B.Sc. (*Dur-*
m).

JOHN GARNET DOWDESWELL, Stud. Inst.
C.E.
CHARLES HERBERT DUFF, B.Sc. (Eng.)
(*Lond.*).
FRED HORNCastle EASTWOOD, B.Sc.
(*Manchester*), Stud. Inst. C.E.
JOHN ALEXANDER EDWARDS, B.Eng.
(*Liverpool*).
JOHN ELLIS, B.Sc. (*Leeds*).
CHARLES REGINALD FARRELL, B.Sc.
(Eng.) (*Lond.*).
FREDERICK FAWCETT.
EDWARD JAMES FAWDRY, B.Sc. (Eng.)
(*Lond.*).
GERALD FITZGIBBON, B.A., B.A.I. (*Dubl.*)
WILFRED LESLIE FLETCHER, Stud. Inst.
C.E.
ARTHUR JAMES FRANCIS, M.Sc. (*Birming-*
ham), Stud. Inst. C.E.
JOHN RUDOLPH FREEMAN, Stud. Inst.
C.E.
SHALOM JEHUDA FURER, B.A.Sc.
(*Toronto*).
WILLIAM ROBERT GARRETT.
WILLIAM GEORGE NICHOLSON GEDDES,
B.Sc. (*Edin.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.
ROBERT LAWRENCE GEE, Stud. Inst. C.E.
HERBERT FREDERICK GOLDSMITH, B.E.
(*Sydney*).
KENNETH HALFORD GOODACRE, Stud.
Inst. C.E.
JAMES ARCHIBALD GOODSIR.
JOHN GLOVER GRAHAM, B.Sc. (*Glas.*),
Stud. Inst. C.E.
GEORGE GRAY, B.Sc. (*Glas.*), Stud. Inst.
C.E.
JOHN GRAY.
RICHARD HASLAM GREAVES.
LESLIE REGINALD GREENAWAY, B.Sc.
(Eng.) (*Lond.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.
DERMOT WILLIAM GREHAN, B.A., B.A.I.
(*Dubl.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.
GETHIN GRIFFITHS.
BHABATOSH GUHA, B.E. (*Calcutta*).
NARHAR SAWALARAM GUPCHUP, B.Sc.
(*Edin.*), B.E. (*Bombay*).
WILLIAM ALEXANDER GUTHRIE, B.Sc.
(*Birmingham*).
BASIL LYNDHURST COLTON HAINES, B.Sc.
(*Durham*), Stud. Inst. C.E.
ERIC COLIN HALL, B.E. (*New Zealand*).
REX HAMMOND.
ROBERT JOSEPH HARDING, Stud. Inst.
C.E.

JACK GOODMAN HAWKINS.

CHARLES LESLIE HEELER, Stud. Inst. C.E.

ARTHUR MAURICE HILL, Stud. Inst. C.E.

GEORGE FRASER HOGG, Stud. Inst. C.E.

PHILIP HENRY THOMAS HOLLOWAY, B.A.
(*Cantab.*).

JAMES HOWARD HUMPHREYS.

ROBERT INGLIS, Stud. Inst. C.E.

CHARLES ANTHONY JAMES INMAN, B.E.
(*Sydney*).

HAROLD KENNETH JOHNSON, B.Sc. Tech.
(*Manchester*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JOHN KELVIN JONES, B.Sc. (*Wales*).

WILLIAM BUTLER KAVANAGH, B.Sc. (*St. Andrews*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

LAURENCE TENNANT KEILLER, B.Sc.
(*Edin.*).

FALCONER KEIR, M.M., B.Sc. (*Edin.*).

JAMES MCFARLANE KESSON, B.Sc. (*Glas.*),
Stud. Inst. C.E.

RICHARD STANTON KEVILL.

CHINTAMAN HARI KHADILKAR, B.E.
(*Bombay*).

ROBERT LACEY, Stud. Inst. C.E.

CLIFFORD DOUGLAS ALBERT LAKE, Stud.
Inst. C.E.

ROBERT ARTHUR LEEMING, B.Sc. (*Eng.*)
(*Lond.*).

WILLIAM JAMES LLEWELLYN, Stud. Inst.
C.E.

ERIC BARTON LOCKETT, Stud. Inst. C.E.

JACK BOLLAND LONGBOTTOM, Stud. Inst.
C.E.

JOHN FREDERICK MCILLWRAITH, B.E.
(*Sydney*).

JOHN HENRY MAHY, B.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*),
Stud. Inst. C.E.

EDMUND IRONSIDE MARSH, B.Sc. (*Eng.*)
(*Lond.*).

JAMES MARTIN, B.Sc. (*Edin.*), Stud. Inst.
C.E.

RICHARD MASON, B.Sc. (*Edin.*), Stud.
Inst. C.E.

EDMOND MATHIESON, Stud. Inst. C.E.

MARCUS NORMAN MEDRINGTON, Stud.
Inst. C.E.

ROBERT CHRISTOPHER MELVILLE, B.Sc.
(*Edin.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JOHN MILBURN, B.Sc. (*Durham*).

REGINALD ALFRED MILLER, B.Sc. (*Eng.*)
(*Lond.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JAMES WILLIAM MILNE, Stud. Inst. C.E.

THOMAS MITCHELL, B.Sc. (*Edin.*), Stud.
Inst. C.E.

ALFRED THOMAS MORRIS, Stud. Inst. C.E.

ERIC BILLINGHAM NASH, B.Sc. (*Birmingham*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JOHN MITCHELL NICHOLSON, B.Sc. (*Durham*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

DONALD FRANCIS OFFORD, Stud. Inst. C.E.

DENNIS FRANK ORCHARD, B.Sc. (*Eng.*)
(*Lond.*), Stud. In C.E.

FRANCIS VICTOR OSBORNE, Stud.
C.E.

ARCHIBALD PATERSON, Stud. Inst.

JOHN THOMAS PAYNE, B.Sc.
(*Lond.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JOHN FREDERICK PECK, B.Sc.
(*Lond.*).

ARTHUR CYRIL PERERA, B.Sc. (*Glas.*)
SORABJI MERWANJI POSTWALA,
(*Bombay*)

BENJAMIN PRESTON, B.Sc. (*Manchester*)

LESLIE GEORGE PRITCHARD.

SHEIKH ABDUR RAHIM, B.Sc.
(*Lond.*).

DONALD DAVID REID-THOMAS,
(*Cantab.*).

PHILIP REILLY.

ROBIN EDMUND REYNOLDS, B.Sc.
(*Lond.*).

LEONARD ALBERT RHODES.

RAYMOND CALVERLEY RILEY,
(*Dubl.*).

ANDREW GORDON ROBB, B.E. (*New Zealand*).

HUBERT ARTHUR ROBERTS, Stud.
C.E.

JOHN ROBINSON.

HENRY KENNETH ROSEVEARE,
(*Cantab.*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

JOHN COUCH ADAMS ROSEVEARE,
B.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*), Stud. Inst.

GEORGE MABYN ROSS, C.I.E.,
B.A.I. (*Dubl.*).

JOHN BURGESS ROWNTREE, B.E.
(*Zealand*).

LAURENCE FRANCIS HENRY RUDD,
Stud. Inst. C.E.

ARTHUR BASIL SALMON.

CHHOTALAL HIRACHAND SANGHVI,
(*Bombay*).

GANPATRAO VISHWANATH SATHE, B.E.
(*Bombay*).

JAMES BAGULEY SCHOFIELD, B.Sc. (*Glas.*)

PERCIVAL FREDERIC DREWEATT, B.Sc.
(*Manitoba*).

HARRY SEDDON, B.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*)
Stud. Inst. C.E.

MOHAMMED KASIM GHANSIBHAI SHAH,
M.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*).

JOHN DIXON SHARMAN.

ANDREW SINCLAIR.

BRAHMA SINGH, B.Sc. (*Allahabad*).

WILLIAM SMART, B.Sc. (*Edin.*),
Stud. Inst. C.E.

CYRIL BARDELL SMITH, B.Sc. (*Edin.*)
(*Lond.*).

IAN LEWIS SMITH, B.Sc. (*Aberdeen*).

JOSEPH DUNCAN STEEL, B.Sc. (*Edin.*)
(*Lond.*).

JAMES ARTHUR STEPHENSON, B.Sc. (*Edin.*)
(*ham*), Stud. Inst. C.E.

EDWARD STERNE, B.Sc. (*Eng.*) (*Lond.*)

AN LEONARD STONE, Stud. Inst.	FREDERICK ARTHUR REGINALD WEBB.
CHARLES MIDDLETON TAYLOR.	JACK DENIS WEST.
STRATFORD TAYLOR, Stud. Inst.	JAMES BLAKE WHITEHEAD, Stud. Inst.
	C.E.
RT ALLAN TENNANT, B.E.	RICHARD WHITING, Stud. Inst. C.E.
tional).	DONALD GEORGE WILLIAMS, B.Sc. (Eng.)
K GEORGE THOMAS, Stud. Inst. C.E.	(Lond.)
K DENNIS THOMAS, B.Eng. (Liver-	JAMES VAUGHAN WILLIAMS, Stud. Inst.
), Stud. Inst. C.E.	C.E.
ST JAMES TONELLI.	LOUIS CHELVARUTNAM WILLIAMS, B.E.
ST RUDOLF TYZACK.	(Madras).
CROSBY VEALE, M.Eng. (Liverpool),	GRAHAM GUY WINGFIELD, B.Sc. (Eng.)
d. Inst. C.E.	(Lond.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
EDWARD WARDROPPER, M.Sc.	NORMAN ARTHUR EVANS WOOD, B.Sc.
g.) (Lond.).	(Eng.) (Lond.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
WATTS, B.Sc. (Eng.) (Lond.).	MICHAEL PAUL WRIGHT, B.Sc. (Eng.)
K SYDNEY WAYMAN, B.Sc. (Eng.)	(Lond.), Stud. Inst. C.E.
nd.).	KENNETH GILCHRIST YOUNG, B.Sc. (Eng.)
	(Lond.), Stud. Inst. C.E.

Associates.

SIMPSON, M.Sc. (Liverpool).	JOHN THEODORE HOWARD TURNER, M.Sc.
	(Eng.) (Lond.).

BRITISH-AMERICAN ENGINEERING CONGRESS 1939.

The following Paper, dealing with conditions in Great Britain, was presented at the British-American Engineering Congress at New York in September, 1939, and was therefore primarily prepared for reading before American Engineers.

"Activities for the Improvement of the Social and Economic Status of the Members of the Civil Engineering Profession"

By SIR CLEMENT DANIEL MAGGS HINDLEY, K.C.I.E., M.A.,
President Inst. C.E.

IN order to examine this subject, it is useful to consider generally the conditions which, in a democratic country, influence or determine the social and economic status of any profession or calling. It would seem to be axiomatic that status depends fundamentally on the technical and ethical standards maintained. Even with the most rigid protection of law and tradition, a profession or calling cannot improve, or even maintain, its status if it does not make itself worthy of public confidence and worthy of proper remuneration by giving efficient and disinterested service; and the ability to give such service depends on the extent to which the profession maintains its standards, technical and ethical.

It is even possible to argue, with some historical support, that a profession or calling which by artificial means is given a monopoly of certain activities, and is consequently relieved from economic pressure, is liable to allow its standards to deteriorate. At this stage, however, it is sufficient to recognize that status is dependent on maintenance of high standards.

As secondary influences on status may be noted (a) legislative and statutory protection, and (b) traditional public recognition and respect for the degree-giving or diploma-giving body. The former may consist of legal prohibitions against activities of a certain kind being exercised by persons not specifically qualified under prescribed standards. Furthermore there may be legal restrictions on the use of designations or professional appellations except by the acquisition of prescribed qualifications. Lastly there may be certain privileges granted by law to the members of a calling or profession in return for services which may be demanded by the State. Although these forms of protection are generally designed in the interests of the public or the State, rather than of the particular profession or calling, they nevertheless may be a powerful factor in protecting

ssion or calling, and consequently in tending to improve the social economic status of its members.

the influence on status derived from (b), traditional public recognition respect for the authority granting diplomas, depends on historical factors which vary considerably in different countries, and is possibly of more importance in Great Britain than elsewhere; it should, however, be noted that the continued value to the profession of this recognition is very dependent on the standards maintained; this influence is constantly to be regarded as secondary in importance to that of the maintenance of standards.

There is a third category of influence, which includes the efforts made by the profession or calling to inform the public of its acquirements and achievements, whether these efforts are of an active nature in the form of propaganda or rely merely on a tacit appeal by obvious success in achievement.

In regard to propaganda, it is necessary to observe that in most professions active propaganda undertaken by an individual for his own benefit is rightly regarded as unethical, and, in fact, it is this self-imposed restriction that differentiates a profession fundamentally from other groups. From the ethical standpoint there need be no such restriction on the activities of the central authority of the profession, and, in fact, they will feel under some obligation to the public to promulgate in the press, or through its own publications, information as to the value of its profession to the general community, records of advancement in knowledge and practice, and descriptions of its achievements in service to the public. Before concluding this general review of the conditions which influence professional status, it may be well to glance at the measures which have been adopted effectively, mostly by callings not of a professional nature, to improve social and economic status. Amongst these are (a) restriction of number of new entrants; (b) refusal to collaborate with non-members; (c) collective bargaining in regard to remuneration and conditions of work; (d) political influence through voting power. These measures will be referred to later in relation to the specific case of the civil engineering profession.

With these general considerations in mind, it is now proposed to deal with the particular case of the civil engineering profession and its position in Great Britain.

At the commencement of the nineteenth century the professions were generally recognized as such were limited to the Church, the Services (the Army and the Navy), and the Law. In the social structure of that time, which was based largely on land ownership and pedigree, these callings which "a gentleman" might enter without losing status, were thus sharply differentiated on the one side from crafts which involved manual labour, and on the other side from business which involved buying and selling. Certain other professions were beginning to obtain

recognition as such, although of inferior social status, such as medicine, education, banking, music, and art. In all these professions the economic status was low. In the first three there were prizes to be obtained. The last carried high remuneration such as bishoprics and other high offices in the Church, judgeships and political office for the legal profession, and a military and naval rank in the Services; but for the rank and file in these professions the social position obtained was often difficult to support on account of the low level of salaries or fees obtained.

At that time engineering as a profession was unknown in civil engineering, although military engineering had long been recognized as a professional activity, and military engineers were sometimes entrusted with the construction of roads and bridges. For some centuries engineering work of public utility such as land drainage, water-supply, and docks and harbours had been carried out by men, often of humble origin, who had instinctive ability in the construction of such works, such as was generally associated more with art than science. Examples may be found in the draining of the fens by Vermuyden, the supply of water to London by Myddelton, carried out by Brindley, and at a later date harbours and maritime works by Smeaton. These men conceived the works, designed them broadly, and carried them out by direct labour such as the millwright, the blacksmith, the mason, the quarryman, and gangs of labourers under gangers.

The contractor, as he is known to-day, carrying out the work to a design and under the supervision of the engineer, only made his appearance in the early part of the nineteenth century. It was, in fact, Thomas Telford, the first President of The Institution, and regarded by many as the founder of the civil engineering profession, who was largely responsible for developing the system of carrying out public works by contract. Many of the conditions embodied in modern contracts owe their origin to him.

This separation of the two functions, namely, the function of design and supervision and the function of execution, gave an important stimulus to the acquisition of scientific and practical knowledge by the engineer. He had to fit himself to direct the efforts of the contractor. Further, it contained the germ of the idea underlying modern professional ethics, namely, that the engineer is remunerated by fees and the contractor by profits.

The growth of engineering as a profession owed most of its progress to the fact that in 1820 a group of young engineers, who had, 2 years before, formed a society called The Institution of Civil Engineers, invited Telford to become their first President, a position which he occupied for 14 years. With the collaboration of others, whose names are remembered with honour, Telford succeeded in laying the foundations of the profession in the Royal Charter, which was granted in 1828, can be found provisions which throughout the past century have guided the policy and the activities of The Institution.

If at the present time the members regard the provisions of the Ch

ngently binding on them, it is not entirely because they revere memory of the men who designed it and honour the traditions which established. It is because they cannot but recognize that obedience precepts enables them to maintain and improve their technical and standards, while giving them ample scope for developing activities le for the ever-advancing social and economic conditions of the as a whole. It is a remarkable tribute to the foresight and purity give of the founders of The Institution that, through all the enormous pments of the last century, few changes, and those in detail only, had to be made to the original document, the first Charter of The ation.

is worthy of note that the cardinal principle of this Charter is that institution is set up for the advancement of mechanical science. indeed, is the main or sole object with which the body corporate itled to act, and all other things are subservient to that primary on. The whole of the resources of The Institution are to be used is function—it is forbidden to use them for the benefit or profit of any dual member. It is out of this fundamental principle that the whole e of The Institution as it is known to-day has been built up. The il, the governing body, elected by the members, have to see to it that e is admitted who is not fully qualified to partake in this mission of acing engineering science, and hence they have laid down standards attained both in education and practical knowledge by those who are ted as members, and they regulate the training of students who e to be members. For similar reasons the Council have power to rcribe standards of ethical conduct, and to expel those who offend st those standards. In pursuance of the main object, the Council de facilities for interchange of knowledge and experience, by reading discussion of Papers, and by publishing to the members and the public accounts of such discussions, and, finally, they use the resources of The tution in the active pursuit of new knowledge by promoting scientific reh.

n regard to technical standards, The Institution has been perhaps the er of the principle that an engineer cannot be made by book-learning . Indeed, in the earlier years attachment to the necessity for practical ing and experience was so great as sometimes to obscure the equally need of sound scientific education.

elford himself spoke and wrote in forcible terms of the impossibility achng proficiency without practical experience, but the need for ation, both general and scientific, became more recognized as the th of industry produced more and more complex problems to be d. The advance of pure scientific knowledge throughout the earlier of the nineteenth century, and the applications of science to industrial lopment, gave enlightenment about the fundamentals of engineering ice, and in the second half of the century a start was made in many

schools, colleges, and universities, of teaching engineering science as a subject separate from the pure sciences. In the last decade of the century engineering courses were already established in some of the universities, and it was at this time, in 1896, that The Institution formulated its standards of scientific knowledge by introducing examinations for the admission of students and new members.

These examinations were, from the first, of a standard equal to the highest standards aimed at in the universities. They have progressively been raised, and by keeping a rigid control of the exemptions permitted. The Institution has been a powerful factor in maintaining and raising engineering educational standards in colleges and universities.

The Institution, however, avoided the error of becoming merely a degree-giving or diploma-granting body, like a university, by insisting that a period of practical training being added to the attainment of the prescribed educational standard before admitting a candidate for election to membership.

The prescribed qualifications, both of education and training, have always been tenaciously and jealously administered without fear or favour, and it is claimed that this has been a powerful factor, if not indeed the primary factor, in improving professional status. At the present time the qualifications inherent in corporate membership of The Institution are recognized universally as credentials of the highest order both in technical ability and in professional or ethical standards, and in the opinion of many this provides a status which could not have been reached had the devotion of the leaders of the profession to the precepts of the Charter been less tenacious or less conscientious.

The significance of the grant of a Royal Charter lies in the fact that the recognition of the highest authority in Great Britain has been given firstly to the need in the public interest for a body corporate to advance a particular object, and secondly to the competence of the body of men to whom the Charter is conferred to carry out that object. A Charter is only obtained after an exhaustive inquiry has been made into these two considerations by the Privy Council, on whose advice the Sovereign grants the Charter. The exercise of this function is largely removed from political influence, and once the Charter is granted, the body corporate is left free to carry on its duties without interference so long as it complies with the terms of the Charter. The penalty for action contrary to those terms is less than the forfeiture of the Charter itself.

It was the intention of those who framed the objects to be included in The Institution's Charter, the terms of which were based on the petition presented to the Council of The Institution to the Crown, that the activities of the Institution should cover the whole field of engineering science. The terms explicitly include all such activities, and it has always been maintained that the Institution should include members of every branch of the profession. For this reason there has been a successive broadening of the qualifications

ed for membership, and the Roll for many years past has included, civil engineers in the restricted sense, engineers of many other es such as mechanical, electrical, marine and naval, mining, gas, ructural engineering. Although for nearly a century The Institution e only Chartered body of engineers in Great Britain, other more ized bodies of engineers grew up alongside it, and eventually ded in obtaining Charters of their own, as will be seen from the ng list :—

	Established.	Chartered.
e Institution of Civil Engineers	1818	1828
e Institution of Mechanical Engineers	1847	1930
e Institution of Gas Engineers	1863	1929
e Institution of Electrical Engineers (until 1889 known as The Institution of Telegraph Engineers)	1871	1921
e Institute of Marine Engineers	1889	1933
e Institution of Mining Engineers	1889	1915
e Institution of Mining and Metallurgy	1892	1915
e Institution of Automobile Engineers	1906	1938
e Institution of Structural Engineers (formerly the Concrete Institute)	1908	1934

is a matter for argument, now largely of an academic nature, whether engineering profession would have obtained higher status and more recognition if these schisms in the body of engineers had not taken

It may well be that with the rapid proliferation of the science there was need for separate bodies to control standards appropriate to branch, and that the multiplication of societies has stimulated h; but on the other hand there have been many occasions when the sion as a whole would perhaps have been better served if it could have n with an authoritative voice, and efforts of various kinds have been rth in recent years to achieve such a possibility.

has been argued, for instance, that certain other professions who have a unity have been able to exercise more influence on public opinion n Governmental action by reason of such unity, and that thereby have been able indirectly to improve their professional status. The has some attraction, and has been revived on many occasions when position of the profession has seemed to be in jeopardy, when its s to make its influence felt have not met with apparent success, or economic conditions have resulted in inadequate remuneration for ank and file.

efforts to secure unity have been many and various. The possibility eration has been explored, only to be rejected, primarily because of the sity of standards, and secondly because of the natural loyalty of the bers of different branches to the traditions and interests set up by their al Institutions. The most notable of these efforts was perhaps the g up of the Engineering Joint Council soon after the war of 1914–18, g as its founder members the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical, and

Electrical Engineers, and the Institution of Naval Architects. This has been a useful medium for debating matters of common interest between the Institutions. The Founder Institutions were, however, reluctant to give it any executive powers, because they could not consistently with their Charter obligations delegate power to deal with matters of policy to a composite body. Consequently the Engineering Joint Council has not found it possible to originate new developments, still less to assume the function of speaking on behalf of the profession as a whole.

A more recent development of the idea of co-operation between different Institutions has been the exploration of common interests in a lateral direction, and here the Engineering Joint Council has been of considerable utility. For instance, it has been the medium for carrying out the desire of the Institutions to establish a common standard of entrance to the profession by students. From this year eight Institutions have co-operated in setting up a Joint Engineering Examination Board to control the examinations for a common preliminary examination and test of general education.

In other directions this idea of lateral lines of co-operation has been developed. The Research Committee of The Institution has set up several committees for research into special subjects, those committees containing representatives of other Institutions. It has also participated in a similar way in research work initiated by other Institutions. A further example of co-operation has been the establishment in 1937 of an Engineering Public Relations Committee, on which fourteen Institutions are represented and which has been responsible for a widespread expansion of the means of giving the public and the Press information about the work of engineers in furthering engineering science.

All these co-operative efforts have undoubtedly had an influence on the status achieved by the profession, and while it is difficult to envisage any closer corporate union between the various branches, it is clear that advances in co-operation must tend towards a better appreciation by the public of the value to the community of the work of engineers.

It is necessary now to refer briefly to the standards of ethical and professional conduct laid down by The Institution for its members. In an earlier form the rules of professional conduct were designed primarily to determine the relations between a professional engineer acting as a consultant, and his client. The principles underlying these rules were that the engineer was to act in a fiduciary capacity towards his client, was to accept fees as his only remuneration, was to keep clear of any entanglements which might influence, or be held to influence, his professional judgment, was not to solicit professional practice. For many years these were only rules laid down for the guidance of engineers. They were in many respects inappropriate to the work which many members of The Institution found available to them. They had no direct application to contracts with manufacturers, or to many in salaried appointments under public

ities or commercial firms. For instance, the prohibition of advertisement by fees only was inappropriate to many other activities and in by members of The Institution properly qualified by all the best standards. It was obviously detrimental to retain a code which could not be universally enforced. It was equally detrimental to the members as a whole to attempt to restrict membership of The Institution to those only who worked in a consultative capacity. The code has recently been revised and extended in recent years, and is thought to be a reasonable guide to conduct for engineers in whatever capacity they may be serving. The procedure for dealing with offences against the rules has been carefully drawn up with legal advice, and it is hardly necessary to say that it is very seldom indeed that the Council have had to bring this procedure into action.

It has been said that from time to time there have been movements to take action in the direction of influencing public opinion or the Government in the interests of the profession, and in improving its status. The Council have had to make decisions as to whether or not such action would fall within the terms of the Charter; whether, that is to say, the action could be justified as being directed to the advancement of mechanical science, or whether it had a primary motive of benefiting the members of the Institution. The choice has not always been easy, but the consistent view of the Council in maintaining the advancement of mechanical science as the object of The Institution was greatly reinforced by a judgment in the House of Appeal in a case which arose out of a claim by the Inland Revenue Department that the funds of The Institution were liable to income tax. The Court's interpretation of the Charter was that The Institution's main object was a charitable one within the law relating to charities, and that the income tax could not therefore be collected. In giving that judgment, however, the Court stated that such advantages as members might obtain through their membership were incidental to such membership, and that frequently any activity of The Institution which had for its main object the advancement of mechanical science, even though the members thereby gained in status or prestige, was not contrary to the purpose of the Charter.

This recent interpretation of the Charter by the highest legal authority furnished a criterion by which it is possible to judge whether or not any proposed activity is within the terms of the Charter. If this criterion be applied to any of the activities referred to on p. 185, it will be seen at once that in the main they are outside the scope of the Charter, and for this reason the Council have studiously avoided any action on these lines.

It has been argued in some quarters that in the interests of the profession the Council should seek to have the Charter amended in order to include activities of this kind. The Council have, however, considered themselves to be in some sense trustees of the intentions of the original

founders, and when this question came up in 1934 they decided on any departure from the principles laid down for their guidance by the founders, for the reasons which have been explained on pp. 186-188. At the same time the Council decided to pursue as far as seemed practicable the improvement of the means of giving to the public and the Press information as to the work of the profession, advances made in engineering science, descriptions of works carried out. The Minutes of Proceedings of the Institution, formerly published twice yearly, were replaced by a new publication published eight times per year, which includes Papers read and discussed, other selected Papers on engineering works, and reports on research progress. Collaboration with other engineering bodies was also obtained in the formation of the Engineering Public Relations Committee, replacing the one to earlier, which has instituted lectures, collected cinematograph-films, and provided an information-service for the Press. It is believed that by these means the public at large will in time become more accustomed to engineering, an interest in engineering matters, and, incidentally, will have their attention drawn to the value of engineering to the community.

This is a line of action which needs time for its development. It is in fact, at a gradual process of education of the public to make them aware of the continual process of development of engineering science and commerce, of the benefits they derive in their everyday life from the work of engineering. The profession is well served by the technical Press, and there is no lack of media of information to those who are technically interested. The penetration of engineering into the non-technical Press is, however, a slow process which can only come about by consistent effort, by making available information in a popular form and by giving assistance where engineering subjects become of topical interest.

There are, of course, many who are not satisfied with this long-term policy of publicity, and who urge the need of some more obvious and striking policy to put the engineering profession in a position where it can receive more recognition by the public, and by the Government and other public authorities. This desire has recently manifested itself in two directions. The first of these is that, with the recognition that the Institution and other engineering bodies are precluded from taking action on the lines generally called "Trade Union" lines, such as are referred to on p. 185, there has come into being a body known as the "Engineering Guild," promoted by a group of younger engineers. It is too early in its history to estimate what effect or what influence such a body may have, but it is obvious that it must take a considerable time to develop its activities to a point where it can have any specific effect on status. The second development is a movement, which has secured some success for the registration of engineers by Act of Parliament, on the lines recently adopted by the architectural profession. This is a matter which is bound to give rise to considerable controversy. The subject has been examined by a committee of the Engineering Public Relations Committee, who

ed the facts and the arguments on both sides in a report which is at receiving the consideration of the principal engineering bodies. therefore, the question is at present *sub judice* so far as official is concerned, it may perhaps be permissible to state certain mental considerations. The registration of engineers, if it follows es adopted in other countries and the lines of the recent Architects ration Act in Great Britain, postulates the setting up of a Council or charged with the duty of registering those engineers who fulfil standards of qualification laid down either by the Act or by the itself.

ilst the practical difficulties which such a change presents have been me in the United States and Canada, where registration has been in or many years, there are conditions prevailing in Great Britain which involve more serious difficulties in carrying through the necessary tion. Not the least of these difficulties is the selection of a suitable ation for the person registered. The plain designation "engineer" dy used by many who have no claim to professional status, such as, stance, the members of the various engineering trades unions. It be out of the question to secure the passage through Parliament of which would deprive thousands of men of the right to use the name eer", which they have possessed for many years. Similar difficulties themselves to almost any other simple designation which can be d. It is not suggested that this seemingly trifling difficulty would registration impossible, but this difficulty in itself covers a much wider of difficulties of defining in a Statute the classes of persons to be e for registration, remembering that such definitions, however they be drafted initially, would emerge from Parliament in a form d by compromise between members of the legislature of widely ng political views.

however attractive it may be to persons at present possessing no ized qualification to be admitted to a register which would secure recognition of their right to be called engineers, it is difficult to see would be gained by those whose position is already secured by the sion of the certificate of membership of a Chartered Institution, as The Institution of Civil Engineers, or other body which has been ed a Charter. To exchange the right to be called a chartered eer for the right to be called a registered engineer would not in be a guarantee of improved status. It must also be remembered that, ver carefully the Act might be designed in the matter of prescribing ards of admission to the register, there could be no guarantee that such ards would not be lowered by the Board or Council, or by subsequent tion, and no guarantee that considerations other than those of ical qualification would not in time influence the Board or Council in ting persons to the register. It seems obvious that the power and to prescribe standards would pass from the present Institutions to the

proposed Registration Board or Council, and that the Institutions will in time lose the position they have acquired so laboriously and carefully in many years of leadership. The Author is of opinion that no surer way could be found of jeopardizing the social and economic status which has been achieved by the Institutions, who are guided by their Charters, than to acquiesce in the handing over of their standard-making functions to a statutory body.

In the Author's view, the activities which have been described, namely, the maintenance and improvement of the standards of technical qualifications, and a rigid adherence to the prescribed standards of professional conduct, coupled with co-operation with other engineering institutions in the furtherance of these standards—are the activities best calculated to improve the social and economic status of the engineer. Any departure from the principles and precepts of the Charter, in the shape of action directed specifically to the improvement of the status of individuals, is likely to react unfavourably on the profession, because inevitable impurity of motive of the governing body would become suspect and its usefulness would be hampered. So long as it can be said that The Institution is devoting all its efforts to improving the technical standards of its members and to upholding ethical principles, it will continue to hold its high position in the community, in which its members will share. It will well be that the environment in which British engineers work is so different from that in other countries that different activities are necessary, but in any rate the experience of British engineers may be of use in other countries.

Paper No. 5229.

"The Haifa-Baghdad Road."

by LIEUTENANT-COLONEL RAWDON BRIGGS, D.S.O., M.C., R.E.

*(Ordered by the Council to be published with written discussion.)*¹

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INTRODUCTION.

Work described in this Paper is not yet completed and the Author is under great pressure of time and has been put in charge of the work at very short notice. It should, therefore, be stated that some of the facts and figures submitted are subject to modification. It is hoped, however, that the description of the processes and difficulties to be overcome, and the description of the organization required for a work of such magnitude, carried out by military engineers in a part of the desert, may be of interest to civil engineers.

The Author, assisted by Captain A. M. Hamilton, B.E., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., who had constructed the Rowanduz road through Kurdistan, took the task of preparing an approximate estimate for that portion of the Haifa-Baghdad road from Jisr-el-Majami on the river Jordan to the Jordan-Iraq frontier, as an agency work for the Colonial Office. The work was to be:—

- 1) passable throughout its length in good weather, and workable with the minimum of delay in wet weather;
- 2) suitable for a maximum axle load of 8 tons;

Correspondence on this Paper can be accepted until the 15th May, 1940, and will be published in the Institution Journal for October, 1940.—SEC. INST. C.E.

- (3) built by direct labour ;
- (4) completed in 2 years ;
- (5) designed on the basis of a total cost of £230,000, assuming that the work would be necessary on the firm portion of the desert.

HISTORICAL.

Since the Great War (1914-18) several railway surveys have been made over the route, but costs and government retrenchment have caused the abandonment of these schemes.

In 1923, the Australian brothers Nairn, two ex-service men, made it possible crossing of this desert possible for travellers and freight by running a regular convoy service from Baghdad via Rutbah, thence through Haifa to Damascus. It is not now liable to attack by tribesmen, but it is liable to stoppages of a week in wet weather, when the desert becomes a sea of mud and water, and the journey still remains adventuresome.

In 1932, the Iraq Petroleum Company laid a pipe to carry oil from the oil wells at Kirkuk to Haifa, and laid a duplicate line to Tripoli in Syria. The Haifa pipe-line follows the most direct route through British mandated territory from Rutbah to Haifa, and proceeds straight across this, irrespective of grade or terrain. They cleared a track wide enough for trucks and for stores-carrying vehicles travelling parallel to the pipe, which is described later. Without this track and the tube-wells sunk by the company along the route this road could not have been surveyed in the desert nor could construction have proceeded at the pace it did, as only one head could have been worked on owing to the impossibility of supplying the

THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE ROUTE.

No accurate maps exist of Transjordan. The distance from Haifa to Baghdad is approximately 960 kilometres (600 miles).

Haifa-Nazareth-Tyberias-Jisr-el-Majami.

A first-class asphalt macadam road connects these places.

Jisr-el-Majami-Irbid (38 kilometres).

The Public Works Department were gradually improving this road to the extent of their limited financial resources. The road runs through the inhabited country, and rises from 183 metres (600 feet) below sea-level at the Jordan to 762 metres (2,500 feet) above at Irbid ; it had a four-foot water-bound macadam surface on 20 centimetres of soling over 24 centimetres of its length. The unsolod portions were often impassable in wet weather. The alignment was good, with maximum grades of about 1 in 10 but it had many hairpin bends and long side-cuts in rock up the steep precipitous *wadis*. The Transjordan Public Works Department agreed to

ete this portion of the road as a charge to the Colonial Office, and the
s being widened with a 5-metres surface of full grout of "Colas" on
tmetres of hand-packed soling on a 7-metre formation, fully bridged
ulverted throughout. This portion will not be further referred to in
aper.

Lava Belt (66 kilometres).

ne pipe-line runs along the side of a range of hills for the first 30 kilo-
es, and crosses many valleys, *wadis*, and small steep ridges of lime-
. It then crosses a range of hills and is altogether a most unsuitable
on for a road. After much cross-country travelling in rough going,
d location was found about 5 kilometres north of the pipe-line. It
s over good agricultural land, consisting of cotton soil and red clay for
ometres, then it runs over loamy clay at the bottom of foot-hills with
erous limestone outcrops; it then joins a wide valley at 15 kilometres.
it reaches the desert and the route crosses the range of limestone hills
a low pass. Instead of a multiplicity of small *wadis*, five large *wadis*
to be crossed, and the final grades will not exceed 1 in 20. The Hedjis
way is crossed at a point 42 kilometres from Irbid at Mafrag, where the
again meets the pipe-line. The Hedjis Railway is a single line of
ow gauge, connecting Damascus and Haifa with Transjordan. At
aq is the Iraq Petroleum Company's stores railhead, only a skeleton
at it was in the days of pipe construction, although a good tube-well,
electric-light plant, railway sidings, and a small stores-forwarding staff
in. From 5 kilometres west of Mafrag to the lava belt, 14 kilometres
is a flat hard desert, passable in all weathers for a limited number of
cles. From Irbid to Rutbah in Iraq no water exists, except for such
as have been drilled by the Iraq Petroleum Company, until the river
brates is approached at Ramadi.

Lava Belt.

This belt stretches for 170 kilometres and is one of the most desolate
forbidding areas on the surface of the earth. It is not flat, but is
ken up by gullies, undulations, and extinct volcanoes. It is closely
ered with black basalt rocks piled in confusion, single rocks up to several
in diameter lying on the surface; these occur to a depth of about
feet. The interstices between the rocks are filled with lava ash.
wadis run in flood after heavy rain, and the larger ones that flow from
Jebel Druse in Syria flow also when the snow melts. The Iraq Petro-
n Company cleared a track through this lava, and soled it over a width
metres with lava stones, binding the surface with clay and lava ash.
track is very rough, and is closed to traffic in wet weather. In con-
cting this road little attention was given to grades and it was just laid
r the natural ground-level, but it made communication and stores-

carriage possible. In the middle of the lava is H.5 pumping station of the Iraq Petroleum Company. No spare water is available here for roads, however, and no water is available for a further 25 kilometres; at a distance, 120 kilometres from Mafrag, there is a deep well. A natural spring exists at Azraq, 45 kilometres south of the road, equipped with pumps and an old pipe-line to H.5 pumping station; this will be conditioned to fill the gap. The highest point on the road is in the middle of the lava, and is approximately 915 kilometres (3,000 feet) above sea-level.

Lava Belt : Transjordan-Iraq Frontier (90 kilometres).

This section runs over a slightly undulating desert of alluvial sand underlaid with limestone, and the surface is covered with a layer of fine sand. One large deep *wadi* crosses the road, but at many places water crosses the desert in wide flat shallow flows, causing no erosion to the surface. In heavy rain this desert becomes a sea of mud and water, and vehicles sink under their axles. The annual rainfall is, however, only about 5 inches, and road stoppages rarely exceed 1 week.

It will be noted that over the whole of this desert no sand exists; clean gravel only exists in some of the *wadi* beds.

CLIMATE.

In summer the temperature rises to 105° F. during the day at the H.5 pumping station, and to 100° F. at Mafrag; in winter the temperature reaches 70° F. on a bright day, but it can be very cold at times, 15° or lower, being sometimes registered at night. There is usually a difference of 10° between day and night temperatures in both summer and winter. Very heavy dust storms are common. The climate can be delightful on a sunny day in winter, whilst in spring the desert is covered with grass and flowers.

The average annual rainfall, east of the Hedjis Railway, is about 5 inches, whilst west of the railway it is about 12 inches. East of the railway, 5 inches may fall in one place in one day, whilst another place may have little or no rain during the year.

THE ESTIMATE AND SPECIFICATIONS.

Details of the estimate are too long and involved to describe in full in this Paper, and the processes recommended will be described later under the heading of "The Work." Consideration is given first to the volume of traffic and the loads. The Iraq Petroleum Company run cross-country vehicles of 60 tons capacity (on multiple axles with axle-loads of 9 tons and tire-pressures ranging up to 80 lb. per square inch) from Iraq to Mafrag. Commercial lorries from Baghdad with similar axle-loads run over the road to Haifa. Since it was not practical to limit speeds on such a desolate road,

It was recommended that the surface and formation should be capable of carrying all loads on pneumatic tires with pressures not exceeding 80 lb. per square inch, such surface to be continuous over the whole route. Culliverts were to take British Standard trainloads. Bridges were to be of the steel-span type as standardized by the Crown Agents for the Colonies, and were to be suitable for strengthening later if required. The heavy trucks of the Iraq Petroleum Company were to run over the old causeways and were not to use the bridges.

A considerable time was spent studying processes, costs, and output of work in Palestine, Egypt, Transjordan, and Iraq, and detailed costs for various processes recommended were worked out. No detailed survey was attempted, as the time and staff given for the estimate did not allow of it. Costs of typical sections were, however, worked out in detail. It was decided to recommend that the section from the lava belt to the frontier should be done by contract, as the British firm of Murdoch and Brooks in Baghdad had the plant and trained operators for the type of construction recommended, and their prices appeared reasonable. No other firm in the East had the necessary plant. The remainder of the work was to be done by direct labour.

A detailed plan for organizing and carrying out the work was submitted, together with detailed lists of the staff, plant, tools, petrol, oil, lubricants, etc., which would be required.

The following is a summary of the estimate, excluding agency charges and other overheads:—

	£
1. Cost of road construction	428,430
2. Cost of salaries of subordinate staff	41,210
3. Cost of accommodation	3,000
4. Cost of medical service	4,760
5. Cost of workshops, and transport for staff and its maintenance	10,000
6. Purchase of land	2,000
7. Cost of telephone	1,000
	<hr/>
	490,400
5 per cent. contingencies	24,500
	<hr/>
Total	£514,900

Depreciation of tools and plant: two-thirds of the value on the work (included in item (1)). (The remaining one-third was to be recovered on disposal.)

The estimate was completed by the middle of October 1937. The period from November 1937 to May 1938 was spent awaiting a decision as to whether or not the work would receive sanction. During this time specifications were drawn up by the Author for the plant required, for a contract for raising and consolidating the earth formation, and mixing, grading, and consolidating the surface on the 90-kilometre section of the road

from the end of the lava belt to the Iraq frontier (the work to be done, machinery), and for a contract for the hire of tractors, graders, scrapers, and other American-type road plant, for direct employment on various sections of the work. Opportunity was taken to get into touch with various makers of the types of plant required. Tenders were invited, so that as soon as financial sanction was given there should be no delay in placing the orders. Provisional sanction was given for a staff, and personnel were selected. Sanction was actually given early in June. Contracts for plant and work were signed and placed, and the advance party arrived in Palestine on the 24th May, 1938.

THE PLANT, MACHINERY, AND TRANSPORT.

The plant used is of particular interest to military engineers because of its variety, portability, and efficiency for this type of work. Owing to the difficulty of maintaining a large labour force in the desert, machinery was used where possible in preference to hand labour. In wartime a large labour force on a road is most vulnerable. These mechanical methods of road-making attracted considerable interest from engineers in the Middle East, and it was the Author's experience that in Transjordan, where a labourer costs 3s. for a 10-hour day, including the cost of his water and accommodation, a considerable economy resulted in the use of machinery. The saving in some cases was as much as 50 per cent. A brief description of the plant is given in Appendix I (p. 214).

THE WORK.

The immediate problems facing the advance party in May 1938 were :—

- (1) The setting up of a headquarters office and a stores-purchasing and forwarding department in Haifa.
- (2) The construction of a base at the railhead at Mafrak on the Haifa Railway in Transjordan.
- (3) Getting the contractor to commence work on the construction of the road, the formation between the lava belt and the Iraq frontier, on the 25th June, the date on which he was ordered to assemble his plant and material.
- (4) Keeping the contractor supplied with food and water, oils, lubricants, and all such necessary materials.

An office was hired in Haifa and placed in charge of the assistant to the District Commander (R.E.), an R.E. Captain, who had under him a stores branch with a warrant officer in charge of stores, assisted by three locally-engaged clerks and one typist. All stores were kept on ledgers in Haifa, and the

y cards when issued to the store at the base at Mafraq, and on
ories when issued to any section of the work. The Assistant
ander (R.E.) had a clerical branch which dealt with :—

-) general correspondence ;
-) the construction account ;
-) the recruiting of skilled trades from outside Transjordan.

staff consisted of two engineer clerks (Royal Engineers), one draughts-
and one typist (engaged locally).

the same office was the Paymaster, a major in the Royal Army Pay
assisted by one sergeant (R.A.P.C.), and two locally-engaged clerks.
aymaster paid all labour personally during the first week of each
, and prepared and checked all pay-sheets ; on behalf of the C.R.E.
ried out an audit of all expenditure, pay-sheets, petrol, oil, and stores
nts, and paid all bills. He also acted as an adviser to the C.R.E. on
y and financial matters. He had under him, attached to the staff
h of the two executive engineers on the road, a locally-engaged pay-

e Iraq Petroleum Company, Ltd., had a stores-forwarding depot at
q on the Hedjis Railway, with two railway sidings, which was used
g the construction of the pipe-line, and which was unused and dis-
ed except for a small store, a well, and a lighting plant. This Com-
made a great contribution to the ease of starting up the work by
g half of their compound and one siding, also 12,000 gallons of water
kilowatts of electricity, at the disposal of the War Department.
C.R.E. was lucky to find that the workshop and living huts of the
ordnance workshops at Haifa were, on his arrival, up for disposal by
t, but as the tenders had not been accepted he was allowed to pur-
these at the price of the highest tender, and so obtained, for £100,
iving and office huts of corrugated iron lined with three-ply wood,
30 feet by 20 feet, together with two workshop sheds each 80 feet by
t. These were dismantled and sent by road and rail to Mafraq to
the base camp there. The dismantling and re-erection were carried
y the Arab contractor of the Royal Engineer Services at Haifa at his
running contract rate. From these an officers' mess and quarters,
s.' mess and quarters, native staff block, office block, stores blocks, and
shop bays were made. Additional native quarters and stores were
of mud-brick and corrugated iron.

was planned to divide the work into two sectors (Fig. 1, Plate 1).
ne Mafraq sector was to stretch from Jisr-el-Majami to H.5 pumping
n, with headquarters at Mafraq, and the H.4 sector was to stretch
H.5 to the Iraq-Transjordan frontier, with headquarters at H.4,
under an executive engineer. Work was to be concentrated on the
ends, where the present tracks were always liable to stoppage in
In the autumn of 1939 both sections were to work towards H.5

with headquarters at H.5, and the road was to be completed by the end of the summer of 1940.

An Englishman, who had previously held various positions in Palestine and Transjordan, was engaged as officer-in-charge at the base at Mafraq; his duties comprised :—

- (a) recruiting local labour ;
- (b) reception and distribution of stores, fuel, and food-supply, and work ;
- (c) supervision and organization of transport ;
- (d) supervision of plant erection, and of repair workshops for plant and transport.

On the 26th June four 1-ton trucks and four utility cars arrived at Mafraq, were loaded with kit, tentage, etc. The nucleus staffs detailed to the base departed for Transjordan (the Mafraq party arrived the same day, and the H.4 party arrived at H.4, the day after) :—

- Mafraq : Deputy-commander, Royal Engineers, Mafraq.
One Royal Engineer N.C.O., engineer clerk.
One Royal Engineer N.C.O., surveyor.
Officer-in-charge of the base.
One ex-soldier, head storekeeper.
- H.4 : Deputy-commander, Royal Engineers.
Two Royal Engineers, N.C.O., surveyors.
One ex-soldier, head clerk.

For political reasons it was not possible to employ Jews in Transjordan, and the Transjordan Government were very averse to the employment of any except unobtainable trades from outside Transjordan ; from a modest beginning, in the course of 4 months, an organization employing directly, two thousand labourers, and utilizing and operating plant and transport to the value of roughly £80,000, was in operation. The majority of the operators and labourers were unaccustomed to machinery and work.

The contractors were prompt in assembling their plant. They brought two elevating graders, with 42-inch belts, and a 66-blade grader, by means of caterpillar tractors across the desert, 300 miles from Mosul, and so on, raising the earth formation 8 metres wide and $\frac{1}{2}$ metre above the surface on a straight run of 90 kilometres.

ORGANIZATION.

The base camp at Mafraq.

Living quarters for superior staff and artificers replaced tents at the base ; workshops, stores, and offices were soon erected with water and electric light laid on. Contracts were placed locally for black-hair be-

For labourers, twenty-five to a tent at a capital cost of £1 per head. A mobile workshop was purchased containing a generating set from which operated a 6-inch lathe, a drilling machine, a valve-grinding machine, a press. There was also a very complete outfit of special tools for repairing, maintaining, and testing motor vehicles.

The cost of the work included the hiring of a native police force from the Desert Legion. This consisted of a motor patrol of one sergeant and four *mundies*, to work at the Mafraq end, and a camel patrol of four for the other end. These men proved invaluable in keeping the peace in the many disturbances that occurred, and prevented any serious bloodshed. In addition, the engineer enlisted his own force of armed watchmen, mostly Bedouins and nomad families who had influence with the tribes. They were well armed in the native fashion. Each labour camp had one or more of these armed guards in the proportion of about one to each seventy labourers. These men also acted as a secret service to forestall strikes and trouble.

al.

A medical officer with a staff of medical dressers, one dresser to each labour camp, was employed under the supervision of the Transjordan Medical Service. Four-bedded wards were built at each of H.4 pumping stations at Mafraq and Haifa. All labourers were medically examined, vaccinated, and inoculated against typhoid and cholera.

Waiting and pay.

To prevent crowds of labourers assembling at Mafraq on the chance of getting work, and waiting there with no means of subsistence, arrangements were made for headmen of tribes and villages to send men as required. This was unsatisfactory, as a body of Arabs from one village or tribe, when gathered together, are always conspiring and striking, and will not work for wages under their own leader, who is more interested in seeing that a large amount of work is done by his party than he is in his employer's interest. As the main body of workers were in constant employment, resort was made to the old system of engaging individual applicants and putting up the gangs.

Upon engagement, and after medical inspection, each man was given a metal disk with a number on it in Arabic and English, and he was registered. His name, number, and rate of pay were entered on his gang's monthly time sheet and on the register. A timekeeper, usually a young Arab just out of school, with a knowledge of English, was employed on each gang of between 25 and 50 men. On joining work in the morning a line was put in the space for the day opposite a man's name, and the line was made into a check at the completion of work. At the end of the month the time sheets

were consolidated on to the wages check list. The totals of pay were telephoned to Haifa, and the paymaster flew with the cash to Mafrak in an R.A.F. plane, and was escorted by the Police Patrol throughout the journey. Pay took 6 days to complete. On receiving his pay the labourer had a stamp in his disk as proof of payment, and he was handed a new disk of different shape for use in the next month. In the following month the old disk was again brought into use.

Communication by telephone.

A private telephone system was laid throughout the length of the road and to the Haifa office, and was operated by the road staff. At Haifa it was connected to the military and civil exchanges. The wire ran on an arm of the Iraq Petroleum Company's telephone, but was frequently melted when the pipe-line was punctured and fired by Arab bands. The Mafrak office was also connected to the Transjordan telephone system, but it was seldom possible to hear speech from Palestine although the telephone-service messages were relayed by R.A.F. wireless from Amman.

Communication by rail.

Trains ran 3 days a week from Haifa to Mafrak, but, owing to a shortage of rolling stock and the steep grades, heavily loaded trucks were often left at the bottom of the grade, and sometimes took as long as a week to arrive.

Food.

Inquiry was made from various contractors with a view to placing a contract for the supply and distribution of food to labourers, and the question of the scale of rations was taken up with the Transjordan authorities. The Transjordan Government, however, were expected to insist on a luxury scale that was far in excess of any with which the labouring classes would normally provide themselves, and they would not employ a contractor outside Transjordan to undertake supply. No contractor existed in Transjordan who could be relied upon to carry out a contract of this magnitude. It was therefore decided to exploit local initiative and give encouragement to smaller shopkeepers to open canteens in the labouring camps. It was necessary to ensure, however, that during the wet season no shortage of staple food should occur in any isolated camp. West of the lava belt, where communication with villages could be obtained by road, labourers, there was an ample supply at reasonable cost and shopkeepers opened canteens in Mafrak and in the camps. Camels and donkeys were used to bring food and a gang would send a representative to do their shopping in some village.

In the lava belt and east of it prices soared, and it was difficult to

a merchant to undertake the business. A big merchant of Amman however, persuaded on the conditions that :—

- the government transported all his supplies free to his shops from Mafraq ;
- he sold his goods at prices ruling in the settled districts, his prices to be subject to the approval of the C.R.E. ;
- he would be given a monopoly of shops and canteens in the labour camps, although labourers would not be prevented from bringing in outside supplies ;
- he should keep 7 days' reserve of certain staple items in each camp, and 10 days' reserve in store at Mafraq.

ove arrangement worked satisfactorily.

shops and maintenance.

R.E. staff sergeant, military mechanist, was placed in charge of work at Mafraq. He had under him an Arab plant foreman with diesel experience for erection and repair of plant, and an Arab foreman for repair and maintenance of motor transport. The transport was running 10 a day on the work, and each vehicle was given a thorough weekly attention in the shops, and was greased, oiled, and looked over daily by night shift. Each vehicle had a log book in which everything done was noted, and a record of oil, tires, and petrol issues were kept ; a 100 per cent check was made each month against petrol store-issue books, and petrol consumption of each vehicle was worked out.

The acquisition of spare parts was a big problem. Both General Motors, Ltd., and the Caterpillar Tractor Company supplied stocks of spares in stores at Mafraq, and agreed to take back all unused spares on termination of the work at cost price. With British firms it was necessary to purchase stocks of the spares required, involving a large capital outlay. The probability was that many parts would be unused. When the expected failure occurred, a delay of from 3 to 4 months was occasioned in getting the spares from Great Britain. In these instances parts could not be manufactured locally in Palestine or in the shops, but this was more expensive and material or workmanship were inferior. Transport and plant on the Mafraq sector of the road work relied on Mafraq base for repair and maintenance.

H.4 a similar arrangement was made for maintenance and minor repairs, and a workshop was built there. Major repairs were sent to the workshop at Mafraq. Each engineer had a foreman mechanic to assist in the running maintenance of his plant and machinery on the

transport and distribution of stores.

Following the arrival of three Thornycroft 15-ton flats a local contract was made for the supply of 4-, 5-, and 6-ton trucks. After the arrival of

the Thornycrofts they ran every 3 days to H.4 with fuel, stores, plant, food, etc. The journey took from 8 to 10 hours for the 22 metres. These vehicles were able to convey the heaviest machinery employed on the work with the exception of the R.D.8 tank. Between trips to H.4 these vehicles made local journeys with supplies to the Mafraq sector.

The light trucks, cars, and water-tankers were distributed to see the work as required by the C.R.E. During peak periods extra trucks were hired under contract.

Bitumen supply.

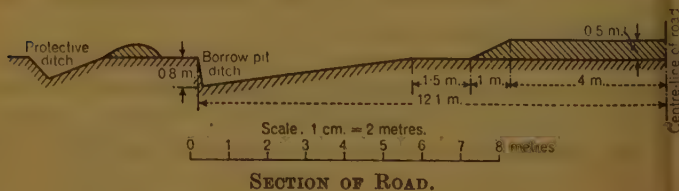
The Shell Company of Egypt, the contractors for the supply of bitumen, received their bitumen by rail in bulk at Mafraq, and transferred it to storage tanks at their siding. It was then re-heated and delivered to the War Department's 2,000-gallon Thornycroft road-tankers or into drums as required.

CONSTRUCTION.

From east of the lava belt to the Transjordan-Iraq frontier.

In the previous year the Author had visited the R.A.F. cantonment at Habbaniya, near Baghdad, where, with a similar soil and an even greater scarcity of stone, roads had been successfully constructed and had withstood heavy traffic for 4 years without any noticeable trouble. The road formation had been raised $\frac{1}{2}$ metre above water-level, and a gravel-and-bitumen pre-mix surface had been laid directly on to the formation. Trouble had occurred only when the roadside drain was too close to the edge of the formation; water then penetrated under the road. It was therefore decided to construct that type of road on this section of the work. The specification to which the contractors were to adhere in constructing this section of the road, is detailed in Appendix II (p. 10). Fig. 2 shows the main features of the road section.

Fig. 2.



The elevating graders started work early in July, and had raised over 100 kilometres of the formation by the 1st January 1939 (including 10 kilometres in the Mafraq sector). The makers claim that the out-

ch-belt elevating grader ranges from 225 cubic metres per hour in conditions to 450 cubic metres per hour in good conditions. In the months during which these two machines were employed they elevated approximately 450,000 cubic metres, an average of 1,250 cubic metres per 625 cubic metres per machine per day. The ground, to all outward appearances, seemed ideal for the operation, but over about 30 per cent. of the distance a limestone strata, varying from rotted stone to hard limestone, was struck by the plough. The surface of the desert was also covered with a thin layer of flints up to about 2-inch gauge on the limestone. A tractor-drawn roter had to be employed to break up the flints before elevating it. The rock and flints caused a lot of wear and tear to the machines, especially the elevator belts. The machines had a rough journey across the desert from Iraq to the site, causing wheels to collapse, in consequence it was very seldom that both machines were in working order at the same time; sometimes both were out of order. These various difficulties were not foreseen, and delays were caused in waiting for spares from Baghdad and the United States. The contractor, when possible, worked up to 20 hours per day, and is to be commended for his perseverance in the face of such difficulties of ground and climate. The Author cannot think of any other machinery or any other means of doing the work, either so cheaply, or at such an economic rate, under the conditions.

The compaction of this bank was carried out by blading each layer of soil as it was cast on by the elevating grader and it was afterwards levelled where necessary by a 12-cubic-yard carry-all scraper, and it was finished with a slight crown by auto-patrol. At every 400-600 metres the road bed was filled to allow traffic to enter, to lead on stone later, and to prevent rutting during mixing operations. This fill was placed below a culvert on down grade or on top of a rise.

Culverts were required on an average of two to three per kilometre, and consisted of 15-inch reinforced-concrete pipes cast at the nearest water supply; at each culvert two or three pipes were laid together between concrete headwalls. A number of concrete causeways, with rough masonry retaining-drop walls and with slopes of 1 in 40, were constructed with sufficient length to allow a maximum depth of 1 foot of water across the road in flood.

Only one major *wadi* existed in this sector, and it was crossed by six concrete spans of single-line heavy-type bridge, built of steel troughing, in accordance with standards laid down by the Crown Agents for the Colonies. Piers and abutments were of concrete faced with masonry.

Efficient use was encouraged to use the formation to assist consolidation, and it was planned that the winter's rain would sufficiently consolidate the soil so as to allow surfacing to be started in the early summer of 1939. The rainfall on this sector in the following winter did not, however, exceed expectations, and this fell before the section east of H.4 had been completed, and was decided to surface only from the lava to H.4 in 1939.

A protective ditch and bank were made by one cut of a No. 66 grader on the uphill side of the borrow pit, and about 10 metres to lead water to the culverts and causeways, and to protect the pit and edge of the formation from erosion that might be caused by a considerable flow of water in the borrow pit. The borrow pit thus only away rain which fell on the road surface.

The engineer at H.4 spent July sinking trial pits over the desert for stone. It was very difficult to know the quantity of stone that be procurable, as an outcrop was caused by an upward bend in the and a good strata would often disappear in the earth again before a considerable quantity of stone was excavated. Many outcrops were to be of poor quality or a thin layer only. New quarry sites had to be continually sought for. A limestone of reasonably good quality found at a maximum carry of 10 kilometres from the road, and with a burden not exceeding 1 metre. Quarrying started at once, and 1 cubic metres of stone had been quarried ready for crushing by April 1939; the output was $1\frac{1}{2}$ cubic metres per man per day.

Two Goodwin Barsby 20-inch by 9-inch portable crushers with belt elevators, fed by hand, crushed this stone $1\frac{1}{2}$ gauge down at the 8 cubic metres per hour. The crushed stone was left in stacks in quarries to be loaded into dumpers by loading shovels and was led on road immediately before surfacing. Surfacing started early in April.

The base course.

Three centimetres of crushed stone was led on to the road and spread by auto-patrol over a width of $5\frac{1}{4}$ metres, and was rolled with an 8-ton A Littleford distributor drawn by a D.4 tractor sprayed this with bitumen to the extent of 2 kilograms per square metre and the surface was rolled.

The surface mat.

Crushed stone was led, in sufficient quantity to provide 8 centimetres of stone over a width of 5 metres, and was dumped in a windrow on the left of the road. This windrow was bladed across the road by auto-patrol and it was found that a layer containing most of the crusher dust and chippings remained while the new windrow contained most of the stones and chippings and a few fines. The layer of fines was screened by hand to extract the chippings for the later seal coat. The windrow was then flattened by auto-patrol into a bed $2\frac{1}{2}$ metres wide, and mixing over lengths of from 500 to 900 metres. 80-per-cent. bitumen at 100 lb. was sprayed on at a pressure of 35 lb. per square inch, and it was necessary to use 55 kilograms per cubic metre of aggregate. This was later found to give too dry a mix and was raised to 60 kilograms per cubic metre. The work was started early in the morning. One qu

quantity of bitumen was applied, and, while the distributor was being and heated, the bed of aggregate was cultivated with a spring-tooth. Following a second equal application of bitumen it was cultivated after which the auto-patrol turned the material over twice, and it across the road, leaving it again in a bed $2\frac{1}{2}$ metres wide.

Further equal application was followed by two cultivations and the remaining quarter of the bitumen was added and cultivated once. The last cultivation was usually made by 11 a.m. The auto-patrol then completed mixing by blading the material from one side of the road to the other, tractors being required to transport the material; mixing was completed by 1 p.m. The mixed material was spread by auto-patrol, and completed by 2 p.m.

At 5 a.m. each morning one pass was made with an 8-ton roller travelling at 5 miles per hour, and the road was then opened for traffic; it was closed again at 4 p.m. Care was taken not to use the roller when the material was soft enough to show waves in front of the wheels.

Pat.

It was planned to apply the seal coat before the winter of 1939, but one trial was sealed as an experiment about a week after mixing. A 5-metre tractor distributed bitumen at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms per square metre, and the surface was blinded with chippings and then rolled.

Immediately before the first rolling, material from the berm was brought to hand to make an even joint with the stone mixture. In rolling, the tractor roller wheel was run partly on this material and partly on the stone mixture. After sealing, the auto-patrol was used for trimming the road to continue the camber. It is reported that the resulting surface had extraordinarily good riding qualities at any speed, far surpassing those obtained by means of hand spreading. It was also observed that a causeway with slopes of 1 in 40 could be crossed at 80 kilometres per hour with scarcely perceptible vertical movement of the vehicle.

Bitumen supply.

It was found that bitumen leaving Mafraq in the Thornycroft tank trucks at 150° F. arrived at the site at 125° F. after an 8-hour run. It was found that a tanker could be held for 2 days before unloading, and 90-per-cent. bitumen could be unloaded at a temperature considerably above 100° F. Normally, less than 10 minutes were required to fill the distributor from the tanker.

The tractor proved ideal for towing the distributor, owing to the even speed maintained by the governor of the tractor. It was found that, in carrying 1,000–1,200 U.S. gallons on a run of 700 metres, the total

output could be gauged to within 25 gallons. The heater raised the temperature in the distributor by 3-5° F. per minute, depending on whether the tank was hot or cold in starting.

THE LAVA AREA.

Formation.

Three major re-alignments of the Iraq Petroleum Company's totalling 15 kilometres, were made to avoid long steep grades, and to reduce the number of *wadi* crossings. In one case that road crossed the same *wadi* in six places, and the re-alignment reduced that number to two. It was decided that about one-quarter of the existing road would have to be reggraded to eliminate acute vertical curves; bends would have to be improved by increasing the radius, adding superelevation, and raising the soling where it had subsided. In this work a heavy rooter, drawn by a caterpillar tractor fitted with angle-dozer equipment, was first passed over the alignment. The rooter upturned any boulder up to about 12 inch dimension, and the angle-dozer pushed it off the formation. Any rock requiring blasting, the bore-holes for the charges being made by a Holman compressor. This work was continuous over almost the whole of the 100 miles of lava country. When the required grade had been excavated a thickness of about 1 foot of lava-ash and soil was placed and consolidated above the rock as a bed on which 20 centimetres of packed soling was laid, so that uneven consolidation of the soling would not occur, as had happened with the original soling.

Culverts were, in general, constructed of roughly-cut slabs of lava, producing a series of openings 2 feet wide. The end and wing walls were of roughly-cut masonry in cement.

Wadis were crossed by causeways. Where the grade down to the bottom was not too severe, the bottom of the causeway was made at the level of the *wadi* bottom. In other cases an over-and-under causeway was constructed, the openings and drop-walls being faced with mass concrete, and a concrete roadway was provided.

Road metal.

Along the whole length of road lava-stones, in sizes suitable for curbs, were piled in continuous heaps in the quantity required for surfacing. The tractor-driven 24-inch by 10-inch Goodwin Barsby crushers were used between these heaps and the roadside. The tractor drove its rear wheels through the rear power take-off, and then moved about a metre, the stones were crushed again; by that means a continuous windrow of crushed stone was left at the roadside.

Surfacing.

Mixing started after the Author had handed over the work to the contractor. The procedure planned in this section was that surfacing should start

is, one end under control of the engineer at H.4, and one under the
r at Mafraq. A number of D.2 tractors each towing a Millar mixer
boiler, and operating the mixer through a rear power take-off, was
along the soling. The mixers were to be fed by crushed metal
the windrow beside the road, and, working in a similar way to the
s, were to deposit a windrow of mixture on the road surface. The
e was to be laid in two courses for a thickness of 10 centimetres and
read by hand or by blade grader, each course being separately con-
d. Two courses appeared necessary to prevent minor inequalities
old soling reproducing themselves in the finished surface. The
rface was to be sealed with bitumen and blinded with chippings.
eral experiments were made to devise a means of reducing the cost
better portions of the old surface, where some hand-work would
ve been necessary in order to rectify small inequalities in the soling.
stly, the earth surface over the sling was scarified, bladed, and sprayed
ude oil from the pipe-line at the rate of 2 kilograms per square metre.
d stone was added to an average depth of 5 centimetres, spread by
atrol and rolled thicker at the crown than at the edges to provide a
. The centre half of the road was sprayed with bitumen at the
1 kilogram per square metre, and then the whole width was sprayed
kilograms per square metre. This was rolled on the following
g and $3\frac{1}{2}$ centimetres of stone added; at midday bitumen (2 kilo-
per square metre) was sprayed on, and on the following day the
was applied. This was repeated with another $3\frac{1}{2}$ -centimetre layer
e on the next day, and after a further 2 days the surface was
with 2 kilograms per square metre, blinded with chippings, rolled,
ened to traffic. The appearance was good, but the stones were not
bound together as in the mixed sections.

e second experiment was conducted on an adjacent length of 500
The base was similarly treated with crude oil and a depth of
imetres of crushed stone was added. This stone was mixed by auto-
with 60 kilograms of bitumen per cubic metre, as for the H.4 area
(208), except that 20 kilograms per cubic metre of crude oil was
after the first application of bitumen. In mixing, the scarified
al from the original road was incorporated in the mix, and the crude
s of great assistance in handling this added quantity of fines. This
ent is said to show every promise of success, and it is now proposed
the whole length from the east of the lava to H.5 should be blade-
in this manner. This will greatly speed up the surfacing process,
ing to the necessity of postponing the surfacing between H.4 and the
er until next season, the plant for this work can be employed, leaving
idle mixers free for work on the Mafraq sector.

IRBID TO THE LAVA BELT.

The Irbid end of this sector has a considerably higher rainfall than the sector to the east of the Hedjis Railway. The winter rain coming from the west across Palestine is deposited on the ridges of hills, and then the rain is usually deposited on the Irbid escarpment and peters out reaching the railway. Rainfall east of the railway usually comes from the south in the form of isolated storms. The area stretching about 10 kilometres east of Irbid is a rolling country of red clay and black cotton soil which is good agricultural land but is impossible to work on for weeks of time in winter. To the eastward the country then becomes more and more hilly, until, a few kilometres short of the railway it becomes a barren desert plain; this continues to the lava belt.

It was decided that formation work should continue as far as possible from the railway towards Irbid before the rain set in, and if possible the formation was to be completed to allow consolidation by rain before the winter. On the flat desert, formation and soling work would be possible throughout the winter. The whole length was to be fully bridged, but as no statistics of rainfall and run-off were available, bridging was not to be started until observations had been made during the winter.

While waiting for the plant, which was not due for delivery until August, work was concentrated on quarrying and collecting stone for soling and surfacing. Although outcrops of limestone occurred along the alignment, in most sections a sound stone was difficult to find within a carry of 10 kilometres. A quarry was operated by direct labour and stone was supplied from this over a length of 10 kilometres of road. When ascertained the cost of extraction, the road was divided into lengths of about 10 kilometres, and tenders for the quarrying and collection of stone for each length were put out to contract. All stone was on the road by the end of 1938.

In August a blade grader was put to work ditching, crowning and shaping the formation on the flat well-drained section east and west of the Hedjis Railway, and the training of the soling gangs commenced. By September two gangs, each of a hundred men, were employed along the railway, and they had worked up to an output of 10 square metres of road per man per day, stone being piled ready at the roadside. The output was therefore 400 metres of road per day. When the rains came, the first gang, and later the second gang, were transferred to the east of the railway.

One of the elevating graders from H.4 was transported to Irbid, and in one month raised a formation of the same specification as at H.4 over a 10-kilometre length of cotton soil east of Irbid. On this section a large amount of sand-and-fill work was performed by a 12-yard carry-all scraper, assisted by a heavy roter to break up the rock. Any hard-rock formation was broken up by shaken by explosive in bore-holes. The angle-doser was used on the lengths of cut and in filling-in culverts and bridge abutments. The

aper proved a most useful and economical machine for cut-and-fill so long as continuous employment could be found for it. The angle could not compare with it on this work except on very short cuts, where large pieces of rock had to be moved. In all except a few minor and laying charges in blasting, all formation work was carried out by men, and by the beginning of 1939, when rain stopped further work on the formation, only about 8 kilometres remained to be completed.

particularly heavy early rainfall occurred in November over the sector from Palestine to the lava. At Mafraq the rainfall in 48 hours was 3 inches, an inch more than the average for a whole year. All the *wadis* between the railway and Irbid ran at a depth of about 2 metres. Maximum flood heights of all *wadis* were recorded. The local Arabs are unanimous that this was the highest flood they had ever experienced in the area. The flood heights observed were quite twice that estimated by the engineers from the observation of erosion marks on the banks. Unusually heavy floods were occasioned by the same storm in Palestine. The floods were a fortunate occurrence as many of the *wadis* never, before, ran more than a few inches deep throughout the following winter. Fortunately this rainstorm did not extend beyond the west edge of the belt.

After the floods it was decided to bridge fully the road from the Jordan to the Hedjis Railway, and work was started on bridges and culverts. For forced-concrete pipes of 36 inches diameter were used singly, or in series, for the smaller openings, whilst for spans up to 4 metres, reinforced-concrete slabs were adopted. For larger spans, heavy bridges of steel were built to the standards of the Crown Agents for the Colonies, using multiple 20- and 30-foot standard spans. All such bridges had masonry-faced abutments, piers, and wing walls filled with rubble cement concrete. On the average, three waterways per kilometre were required, and on the 42 kilometres from the railway to Irbid there were six bridges, of 90-foot span, two of 70-foot span and three of 20-foot span, respectively.

The latest information shows that the work is closely following the estimate of cost, and it is confidently expected that the work will be completed on time.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

The Author wishes to express his appreciation to the Shell Company of Iraq for placing Mr. J. Flemming, one of their road engineers, and several other men experienced in bitumen application and the running of road works, at his disposal, and for all the assistance that their wide experience has afforded. Thanks are due also to the Near East representative of the Shell Company for his advice and weeks of personal training of

operators, and for putting his experience of American road work at the Author's disposal.

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The Paper is accompanied by two drawings, from which Plates and the Figure in the text have been prepared, by twenty-two photographs and by the following Appendixes.

APPENDIX I.

Plant purchased.

Four	Holman T.18.D. compressors, having an output of 180 cubic feet per minute, driven by 40-brake-horsepower Dorman diesel engines mounted on pneumatic-tired carriages.
Three	20-inch by 9-inch Goodwin Barsby cast-steel jaw crushers, driven by 30-brake-horsepower Lister diesel engines and mounted on steel-tired carriages.
Three	Goodwin Barsby 16-inch-wide belt portable elevators driven by 30-brake-horsepower Lister petrol engines.
Four	24-inch by 9-inch Goodwin Barsby cast-steel jaw crushers mounted on steel-tired carriage and driven through universal shaft by a D.4 40-horsepower tractor from a rear power take-off. The machines were designed to the Author's specification. There was enough clearance to allow the crusher to deposit a windrow of crushed stone sufficient to cover a surface 10 centimetres thick over a road width of 5 metres.
Eight	Millar's paddle mixers each with a 10-cubic-foot mixing-box mounted on a steel-tired carriage. A mechanical bitumen pump was incorporated in the whole was driven through a universal shaft from the rear power take-off of a D.2 20-horsepower caterpillar tractor.
Eight	Bristowe bitumen-heaters, each of 320-gallon capacity and an output of 200 gallons per hour, heated by Rutherford oil-burning mechanism. Each was equipped with a standby hand-operated bitumen pump and was mounted on a pneumatic-tired chassis. These heaters were towed behind the mixers by the tractors and the three machines operated as one unit. The axle clearance allowed the plant to cover a windrow of mixed material sufficient for a surface 10 centimetres thick over a road width of 5 metres. The heaters and mixers were specially designed to the Author's specification for work in combination with tractor-driven crushers. Spreading the windrow of bitumen macadam with a blade grader reduced labour to a minimum for this process.
One	Littleford Model C bitumen heater and distributor having a capacity of 1,250 U.S. gallons, mounted on a 4-wheeled trailer-chassis with dual pneumatic tires.
Twelve	Aveling DX.8 single-cylinder 8-ton diesel rollers.
Six	Aveling DY.10 single-cylinder 12-ton diesel rollers.
Two	pneumatic drill-sharpeners with oil-fired furnaces.
Six	D.4 caterpillar tractors, three of which were used for general haulage at the plant, and three for operating the crushers.

D.2 caterpillar tractors for operating the mixers.
Muirhill $\frac{1}{2}$ -cubic-yard loading shovels.

Port vehicles purchased.

Thornycroft 106-brake-horsepower "Amazon" petrol-engined tractors with three-axle cross-country chassis mounted on low-pressure tires.
Carry-more semi-trailers with platform bodies mounted on dual rear axles to carry loads of 15 tons, drawn by Thornycroft tractors (see above).
Carry-more semi-trailers mounted on single rear axles carrying insulated 2,000-gallon bitumen tanks, drawn by Thornycroft tractors (see above).
Ford "V.8" utility car.
Chevrolet coupé "pick-up" cars.
Chevrolet 5-seater saloon car.
Chevrolet utility cars.
Chevrolet 1-ton "pick-up" trucks.
Chevrolet $2\frac{1}{2}$ -cubic-yard tipping-lorries.
Chevrolet 500-gallon water-tank lorries.
Muirhill $2\frac{1}{2}$ -cubic-yard dumpers.

Plant.

R.D.8 caterpillar tractors.
R.D.7 caterpillar tractor.
Le Tourneau heavy rooters.
angle-doers.
Le Tourneau model K carry-all scraper of 12 cubic yards capacity.
caterpillar No. 66 blade grader.

tor's Plant.

R.D.7 caterpillar tractors.
R.D.8 caterpillar tractor.
caterpillar No. 42 elevating graders with 22-foot carriers.
Le Tourneau carry-all scraper of 12 cubic yards capacity.
caterpillar No. 66 blade grader.
caterpillar No. 12 auto-patrol.
John Dere spring-tooth harrow.

caterpillar tractors, road rollers, and bitumen heaters ran successfully on crude in the Iraq Petroleum Company's pipe-line.

APPENDIX II.

abstract of specification for contractor's work on the section of the road from east lava belt to the Transjordan-Iraq frontier.

Formation.

A formation, $\frac{1}{2}$ metre high and 8 metres wide on top, was to be raised and consolidated over the whole 90-kilometre length as shown in *Fig. 2* (p. 206) and was to be finished to shape and grade. The formation was to lie throughout one winter's rain to assist consolidation. Payment was to be made by the cubic metre of soil after consolidation.

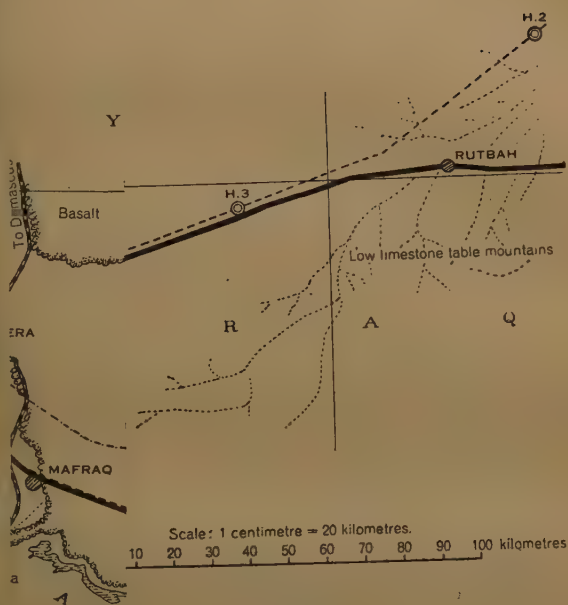
(2) The base course.

Crushed stone was to be supplied by the War Department on to the road. The contractor was to spread a base course, 3 centimetres thick, spray with bitumen (supplied by the War Department), and roll it. This course was to provide a clean smooth bed so that the surface coat could be mixed in situ.

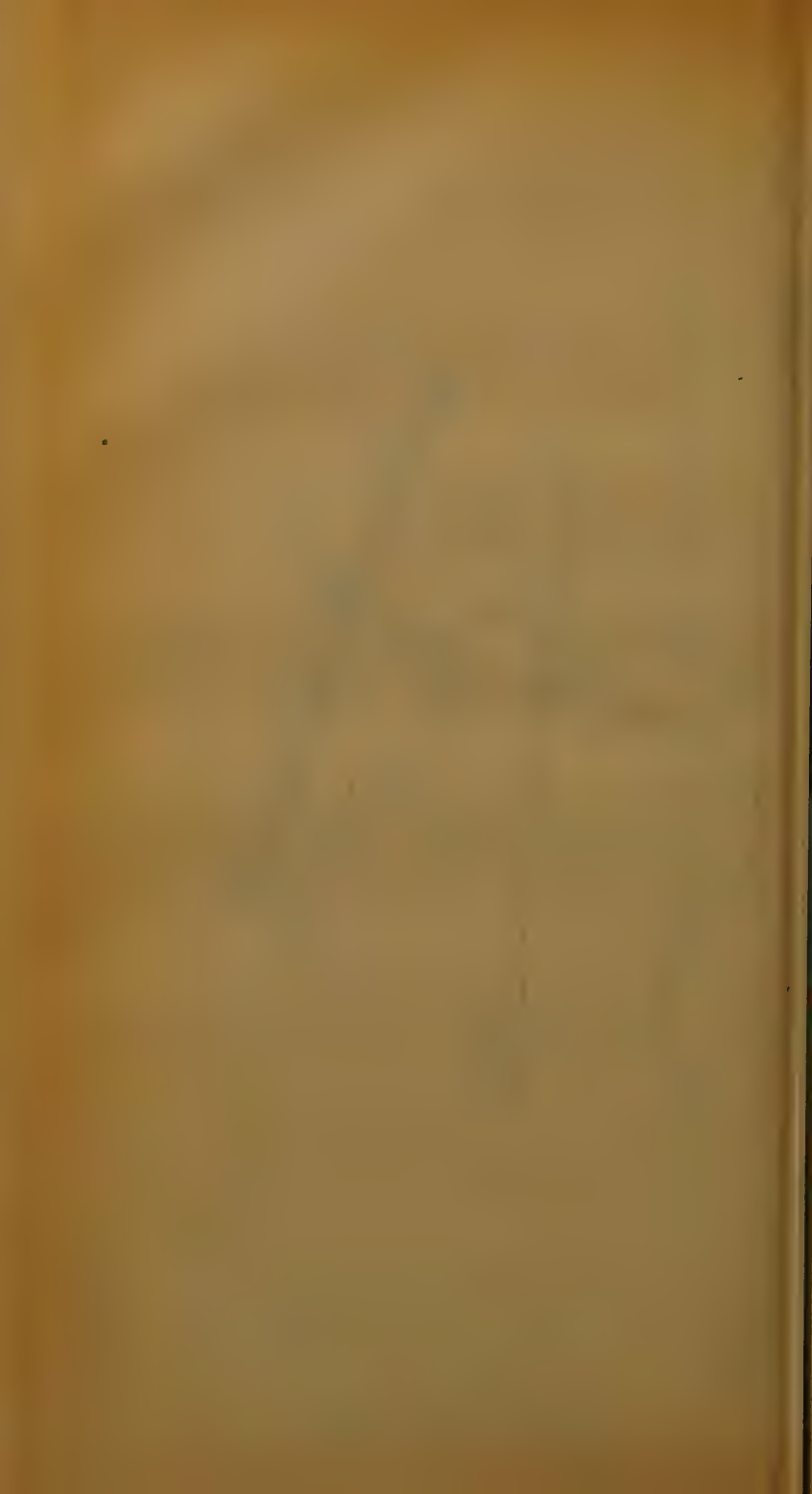
(3) The surface mat.

Further crushed stone (supplied on to the road by the War Department) was to provide a carpet 8 centimetres thick, making a total consolidated thickness of 10 centimetres. The contractor was to spray this with bitumen spread with an auto-patrol, and finally to consolidate it. A power spray of crude fuel oil (from the Iraq Petroleum Company's pipe-line) were to be applied by the War Department.

PLATE 1.
THE HAIFA-BAGHDAD ROAD.



- Haifa-Baghdad road.
- - - Iraq Petroleum Company's pipe-line.
- International boundaries.
- Railways.



Paper No. 5205.

The Hydraulic Problem Concerning the Design of Sewage-Storage Tanks and Sea-Outfalls."

By JOHN RUPERT DAYMOND, M.Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E.

*Ordered by the Council to be published with written discussion.)*¹

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NOTATION.

Unless otherwise stated, all dimensions are in foot-second units.

A denotes the area of the tank.

d „ „ diameter of the outfall.

D „ „ minimum value of z .

f „ „ coefficient of friction, taken as 0.01 in all examples.

g „ „ acceleration due to gravity.

h „ „ difference in height between the tank- and tide-levels
at time t (that is, $z - \zeta$).

H „ „ maximum value of z .

k „ „ a factor involving L , d , and f (p. 232, equation (13b)).

L „ „ the length of the outfall.

m „ „ fraction Q/A .

q „ „ rate of flow through the outfall.

Q „ „ rate of flow into the tank.

$2R$ „ „ range of the tide.

s „ „ fraction Q/k .

t „ „ time.

T „ „ period of the tide in hours.

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z denotes the tank-level at time t measured above and below tide-level.

α „ „ fraction k/A .

Δ „ „ depth of the tank.

ζ „ „ tide-level at time t measured above and below tide-level.

ABBREVIATIONS.

Outfall. This term refers to the sewer, one end of which discharges to the sea, the other end being connected to the sewerage system.

“Unit tide.” This term denotes a tide with a range of 2 feet (that is, $R = 1$ foot) and a period of 1 hour (that is, $T = 1$ hour).

(Note :—symbols having the suffix 0 refer to “unit tide.”)

“z-curve.” This refers to the curve of tank-level plotted on a time scale.

“Periodic z-curve.” This term refers to the hypothetical “z-curve” which the actual “z-curve” approaches asymptotically.

“ α -constant curves.” This term refers to the curves of H_0 and D_0 plotted against m_0 , α being constant.

“ H_0 -constant curves” and “ D_0 -constant curves.” These terms refer to the curves of m_0 plotted against s_0 , H_0 and D_0 respectively being constant.

INTRODUCTION.

Under suitable conditions, a convenient and economical means of sewage-disposal for places situated on, or near to, the sea coast, is to discharge the sewage into the tidal water, purification being effected by dilution. This is usually done by conveying the liquid for disposal through an outfall sewer, the outlet end of the outfall being equipped with a tide-lock to prevent back flow of the tide into it. In addition, the end is usually fixed below the low-water level of all tides. In design, once the outfall position has been located, the main points to be considered are an entirely hydraulic in character and, to the Author's knowledge, no adequate discussion or satisfactory solution has appeared in connexion with the problems that arise.

If the sewers are tide-locked during a period of each tide, the discharge to the sea may be continued by pumping, or on the other hand, storage tanks may be adopted for the period of tide-lock. In general, purification schemes may be designed by standard methods and the hydraulic problem is straightforward. The problem of storage, however, is far more involved and it becomes necessary to deal with the design of the outfall and storage tank.

The scope of the present Paper is to discuss and solve the hydraulic problems connected with the design of sea-outfall sewerage schemes involving storage. To restrict the complexity of the problem it is assumed

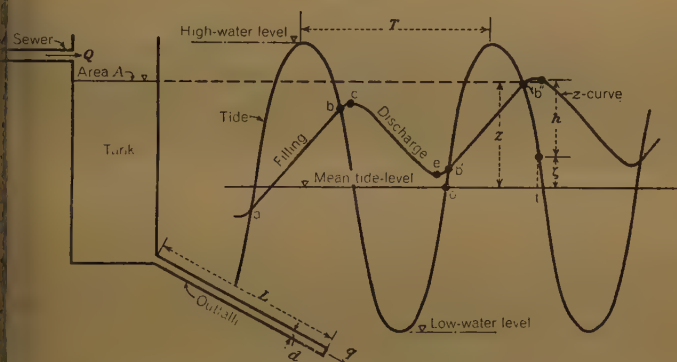
(b) the rate of flow of the sewage into the storage tank is constant, (c) discharge to the sea is per-
 at all stages of the tide, and (d) the end of the outfall, provided
 tide-flap, is below low-water level at all times.

The problem reduces to a differential equation which cannot be solved
 analytically, whilst an algebraic solution is too involved to be of practical
 use. The problem is, therefore, dealt with experimentally on a model
 which reproduces the actual conditions. The results thus obtained are
 presented graphically by a family of curves in such a manner as to be
 of practical use. It is further shown how these results, although given
 for a "unit tide" of fixed dimensions, may be transformed and applied
 to a tide of similar shape to the "unit tide."

THEORY.

Fig. 1 shows curves representing tank-level and tide-level on a common
 base. Commencing discussion of the curves at the point a, there is

Fig. 1.



charge between a and b and so the tank fills at a uniform rate until
 when the tide-level falls below the tank-level. The tank-level con-
 tinues to rise until q is equal to Q . This occurs at the stationary point
 on the tank-level curve (the "z-curve"). From c the tank-level falls
 until q is again equal to Q at e, the difference between tide- and tank-
 level being the same at c and e. Between e and b', q is less than Q and at
 b' charge ceases, and a new cycle commences. Thus, for each tide,
 there is a curve of discharge and filling showing the variation of tank-

This is the "z-curve" (see p. 218).

Measuring heights upwards from mean tide-level as positive and assuming
 no friction to the depth of the tank, let the tank-levels be z and $z + \delta z$
 at times t and $t + \delta t$, respectively. Then in the interval δt the volume of

inflow is $Q\delta t$, the increase in storage is $A\delta z$, and the volume of discharge $q\delta t$. Hence :

$$Q\delta t = A\delta z + q\delta t.$$

Since the end of the outfall is below low-water level, q will depend on h , the difference between the tank- and tide-levels. Writing :

$$\alpha = k/A \text{ and } m = Q/A, \dots\dots\dots$$

adopting the usual hydraulic formula :

$$q = kh^{\frac{1}{2}}, \dots\dots\dots$$

and proceeding to the limit, then :

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = m - \alpha h^{\frac{1}{2}}. \dots\dots\dots$$

It is presumed, of course, that the outflow q has no effect upon the levels, so that ζ will be a known function of t .

Equation (3) is valid for positive values of h only ; since, however, there can be no flow from the tide to the tank, then for $h \leq 0$,

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = m \dots\dots\dots$$

It is clear, then, that equation (3) refers to the discharge and equation (4) to the filling parts of the "z-curve", as shown in *Fig. 1*, whilst these two equations together completely define a "z-curve", since constant integration may be chosen to ensure continuity for all values of t . It is therefore convenient to write :

$$\frac{m}{\alpha} = \frac{Q}{k} = s \dots\dots\dots$$

Equation (3) then becomes :

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = m \left(1 - \frac{\sqrt{h}}{s} \right) \dots\dots\dots$$

Since, for any particular case, Q will be a known constant, it is seen from equations (1) and (5) that s and m are inversely proportional to k and A respectively. Therefore m may be regarded as a "tank factor" and s as an "outfall factor."

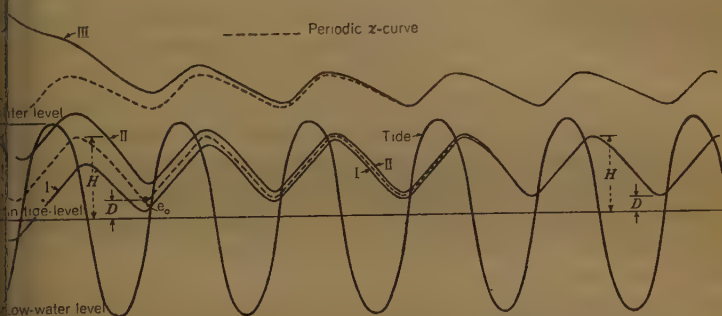
"*Periodic z-curves.*" For fixed values of m and s there are an infinite number of solutions of equation (6), depending upon the constant of integration. All solutions of equation (6) approach the "periodic z-curve" asymptotically (this latter being, itself, one solution) provided the tide is periodic¹. Thus, whatever the position of b'' with respect to *Fig. 1*), the "z-curve" approaches, and ultimately becomes coincident with, the "periodic z-curve." A "periodic z-curve" is completely defined by the values of m and s .

¹ Dr. A. G. Walker, and J. R. Daymond, "On a Hydraulic Problem Involving the Discharge into Tidal Water." *Phil. Mag.*, vol. 28 (1939), p. 520 (November, 1939).

ined by any one value of m and a corresponding value of s . This ant property of the "z-curve" is illustrated in *Fig. 2*, where the I and II are drawn for the same values of m and s , but for different g conditions; curve I starts below and curve II starts above the ttled state. Curve III of *Fig. 2*, which is obtained for values of m ifferent from those adopted in deriving curves I and II, is an e of a case in which the outflow is continuous, that is, the tank- l always above tide-level. Theoretically, the "z-curves" attain city in an infinite time. As shown in *Fig. 2*, however, they become e after a definite number of tides, the time taken depending upon aration of the initial curve from the periodic curve.

H and D , *Fig. 2*, be the respective maximum and minimum heights "periodic z-curve." Then for a given tide, H and D are determined en values of m and s . Conversely, corresponding to given values of

Fig. 2.



D , m and s will be determined. Hence, it may be shown that of r factors H , D , m , and s entering into the problem, any two may sen quite arbitrarily, in which case the other two are fixed. The a between these four factors will be discussed in more detail later, practice it will be found that H , regarded as the highest permissible vel, is usually fixed, so that there remains one degree of freedom. means that one of the factors, or combination of factors, such as cost, e fixed at will. In *Fig. 2* the top and bottom of the tank are H respectively above mean tide-level. If, then, the tank is empty at e_0 , never overflow or fail to empty itself completely on successive t tides. It is evident that the "periodic z-curve" is the essential consider and, since its shape is not the primary concern, only the H and D for the curve need be considered. From the corresponding of m and s , giving this "periodic z-curve", the size of the tank e outfall for the given value of Q can be derived. Finally, then, in ng a scheme, H , D , m , and s are the factors concerned, but, at the ime it is essential to derive results for a "periodic z-curve." If a

design is based on results obtained for a curve other than the periodic one, then on succeeding tides the conditions will change and the design will be unsuitable or uneconomical.

Furthermore, it is not sufficient to base a design on one tide only; it will be necessary to consider the effect of variations which take place in tank levels, and more particularly in H and D , consequent upon the change of range between spring-tides and neap-tides. This effect will be dealt with later, where it will be shown how a solution obtained for any one tide, may be utilized to give results for any other of similar shape, but of different period and range.

Methods of Solution. If, as is usually assumed in representing ζ as a trigonometrical function of t , it will be seen, on substituting $z - \zeta$ for h , that equation (6) cannot be solved explicitly. Two approximate solutions are possible, one graphical and the other algebraic; the former method is suitable for obtaining a complete set of results, but the graphical method offers a convenient means of checking any particular result obtained by experiment, as explained in the Appendix (p. 235). An algebraic solution may be derived by assuming the tide curve to consist of parts of straight lines and parabolas, but the solution is not in a form suitable for comparison.

Having regard to the difficulties of deriving useful results by the graphical method, it was found necessary to resort to experiment in an effort to obtain a complete solution. A model was therefore constructed to reproduce the conditions of the problem, and a series of results has been obtained. The results are displayed in Fig. 9, Plate 1, which shows superimposed families of curves drawn with m and s as co-ordinates, one set of curves drawn for various constant values of D and the other set for various constant values of H .

Transformation Equations. It is evident that any results obtained by experiment on a model should be capable of general application. In order to transform results derived under one set of conditions to those of another set of conditions, it is first of all necessary to know how the model is related to its prototype, and, knowing this, how the results are affected. Assuming the law of hydraulic flow to be the same in the model as in the prototype, it is necessary to know whether any results for another model can be deduced when all other solutions for one particular tide are known.

Assuming a sine tide curve¹ of range $2R$ and period T , then :

$$\zeta = R \sin 2\pi t/T,$$

t being measured from a suitable origin. Writing $h = z - \zeta$ and substituting for ζ , equation (3) becomes :

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = m - \alpha \left(z - R \sin \frac{2\pi t}{T} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \dots \dots$$

which is the equation to the "z-curve."

¹ The following is true for any periodic tide, but for simplicity it is convenient to adopt a sine curve.

let the tide considered above be changed to another of range $2R_0$ and period T_0 , so that the heights and times are changed in the ratio T_0/T , respectively. This change or transformation may be made alternatively as retaining the first tide curve, but altering its vertical scale in the ratio R_0/R and its horizontal or time scale in the ratio T_0/T to give the second tide with its range R_0 and period T_0 . In the same way, let the "z-curve" be transformed with respect to height and time so that, in addition to the ratios already given, R_0/z . Then :

$$z_0/z = \zeta_0/\zeta = R_0/R \text{ and } t_0/t = T_0/T. \quad (8)$$

Since $Rdz_0 = R_0dz$ and $Tdt_0 = T_0dt$.

Substituting in (7) from (8) for z and t in terms of z_0 and t_0 , then :

$$\frac{dz_0}{dt_0} = m \frac{TR_0}{T_0R} - \alpha \frac{T}{T_0} \left\{ \frac{R_0}{R} \left(z_0 - R_0 \sin \frac{2\pi t_0}{T_0} \right) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (9)$$

Writing now the second tide and "z-curve" with suffix 0, the equation derived in the same way as equation (7), is :

$$\frac{dz_0}{dt_0} = m_0 - \alpha_0 \left(z_0 - R_0 \sin \frac{2\pi t_0}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) is similar in all respects to (9) if :

$$\frac{m_0}{m} = \frac{TR_0}{T_0R} \text{ and } \frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha} = \frac{T}{T_0} \left(\frac{R_0}{R} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Therefore, provided m and α have the relationship given above, any solution to the first tide given by equation (7) may be utilized to give a solution to the second tide, since, it is important to note, m and α depend only on the range and period of the tide. Thus, the solution for any one tide may be transformed to give the solutions for any other tide and, in particular, the transformation may be applied to the "periodic z-curve." If the peaks H and D correspond to the maximum and minimum values of z , the ratios given in equation (8) may be extended to include :

$$\frac{H_0}{H} = \frac{R_0}{R}, \text{ and } \frac{D_0}{D} = \frac{R_0}{R},$$

In addition, from equation (5) and the preceding ratios :

$$s\sqrt{R_0} = s_0\sqrt{R}.$$

These equations of transformation may be used in a variety of ways, and examples of their application to practical problems will be given later. The most useful immediate application, however, is in expressing experimental results in a standard form so that they can be conveniently transformed and applied to any practical case. If, therefore, results for one tide are known (no suffix) and it is required to examine the results

for another tide (suffix 0), the equations of transformation, already derived but collected here for convenience, are :

$$\frac{m_0}{m} = \frac{TR_0}{T_0R}, \quad \frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha} = \frac{T}{T_0} \left(\frac{R_0}{R} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \frac{s_0}{s} = \left(\frac{R_0}{R} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \frac{H_0}{H} = \frac{D_0}{D} = \frac{R_0}{R}.$$

"Unit Tide." For any one place a tide may have a wide variation in range, its period remaining constant. Hence, assuming a standard form of tides, it is obviously an advantage to give results for a standard unit tide from which results for other tides may be derived. For this purpose, a tide with a range of 2 feet, that is, $R = 1$, and period of 12 hours has been adopted, and all experimental results are given with reference to this "unit tide."

If, therefore, the quantities with suffix 0 refer to the unit tide, and quantities without suffix to any other tide, then the equations of transformation are :

$$m_0 = m \frac{I}{R}, \quad \alpha_0 = \alpha \frac{T}{R^{\frac{1}{2}}}, \quad s_0 = s \frac{s}{R^{\frac{1}{2}}}, \quad \frac{H_0}{H} = \frac{D_0}{D} = \frac{I}{R}, \quad \dots$$

T being measured in hours, since R_0 is unity and the period T_0 is 12 hours.

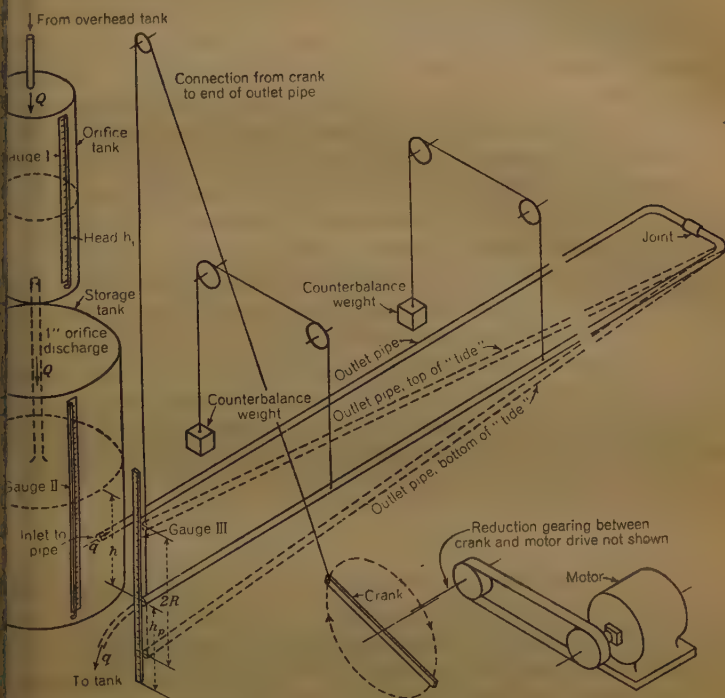
EXPERIMENT.

Description of the Model. An outline diagram of the model-apparatus on which the experiments were carried out is shown in *Fig. 3*. This diagram is not to scale, and to make it clear, unessential features have been omitted. The apparatus consists of a storage tank which receives a supply Q from an orifice tank, this flow being discharged at a rate q through an outlet-pipe. At the same time, the end of the outlet-pipe is periodically raised and lowered by means of a connection from a rotating crank mechanism simulating a head relative to the water-level in the storage tank. Under these conditions in the model are thus the same as those prevailing in nature, the supply Q corresponding to the sewage flow, while the oscillating outlet-pipe, in addition to its correspondence to the outfall, serves to create the tidal head. In nature, tidal levels are independent of any commercial discharge from an outfall, a condition which is simply and effectively simulated in the model, since the level of the end of the outlet-pipe is independent of q .

The supply Q , obtained from an overhead tank (not shown) and measured on gauge I, giving the head over a 1-inch-diameter orifice in the orifice tank, flows to the storage tank and hence through a 2-inch-diameter outlet-pipe to a tank (not shown) in the base of the building. The discharge was accurately calibrated, by direct weighing, to give Q in terms of h_1 , the head measured on gauge I. The maximum area of three connected storage tanks (two of which are omitted from the diagram in *Fig. 3*) is 13.82 square feet. By inserting drums in the tanks, or by connecting them, this area could be reduced to a minimum of 2.324

The outlet-pipe, 78 feet 6 inches long, is fixed from its connexion to storage tank, to a joint which is between two right-angle bends, the other end of the pipe being free to move about this joint in a vertical plane. To prevent sagging and to ensure steady motion, counter-balance weights were suspended over pulleys and connected to the moving outlet-

Fig. 3.



as shown. The end of the outlet-pipe was raised and lowered in a periodic motion by means of a wire-rope connexion which passed over a pulley to a rotating crank. The connexion being over 12 feet long, the "level curve", corresponding to the motion of the end of the outlet-pipe, was almost a true sine curve, since the obliquity between the crank and the end was very small. The crank was driven through belt and pulley (no details of the gearing are shown) so as to give tide periods of 124 to 750 seconds. This period could be changed for different sets of experiments by changing the pulleys on the driving-motor and also by a variable resistance control on the line voltage in series with the field and armature. The resistance was also used to ensure a constant motor-speed for each experiment. The head of water in the storage tanks was measured on gauge II, and

the level of the end of the outlet-pipe on gauge III, the datum of these gauges being accurately fixed at the same level. All the readings could be read to 0.005 feet. The discharge q was calibrated in terms of h , the difference in the readings on gauges II and III. The equation of the rating curve of q in cusecs for $h \geq 0.11$ feet is $q = 0.032 h^{\frac{3}{2}}$.

The Method of carrying out Experiments. Although m and s are co-ordinates of the desired families of curves, it was not found convenient to carry out experiments keeping either m or s fixed, and varying the other. From the form of the model, a set of results could be most conveniently obtained by keeping A , T , and R constant and varying Q . Since the size of outlet pipe was used throughout, k was fixed, so that each experiment was carried out for fixed values of α , T , and R . For each experiment, the procedure was to start with a known constant Q (and hence a known value of m , since A was fixed), and to run the apparatus at a determined constant speed to give a constant value of T . Readings on gauge II were then noted until h became periodic to give a "periodic z-curve" with constant maximum and minimum readings on a number of successive tides. These peak values were then tabulated as H and D , using the datum of the tide-level, as read on gauge III, as datum. Changing Q , the experiment was repeated for another value of m , both T and R remaining constant. Sets of results were obtained in this way and plotted to form "α₀-constant" curves, H_0 and D_0 being plotted against m_0 after transforming by equation (12) from the experimental to the "unit tide."

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS.

Ten sets of experiments were carried out with α_0 ranging from 1×10^{-4} to 28.44×10^{-4} , the resulting "α₀-constant" curves for H_0 and D_0 , plotted against m_0 , being given in Figs. 4 and 5, Plate I.

When H and D are large compared with R , the head producing dissipation tends to become independent of the tidal fluctuation, and may then be measured from mean tide-level instead of from the actual tidal level. Hence, in equation (6), dh/dt may be written for dz/dt and, as a result, it can be seen that:

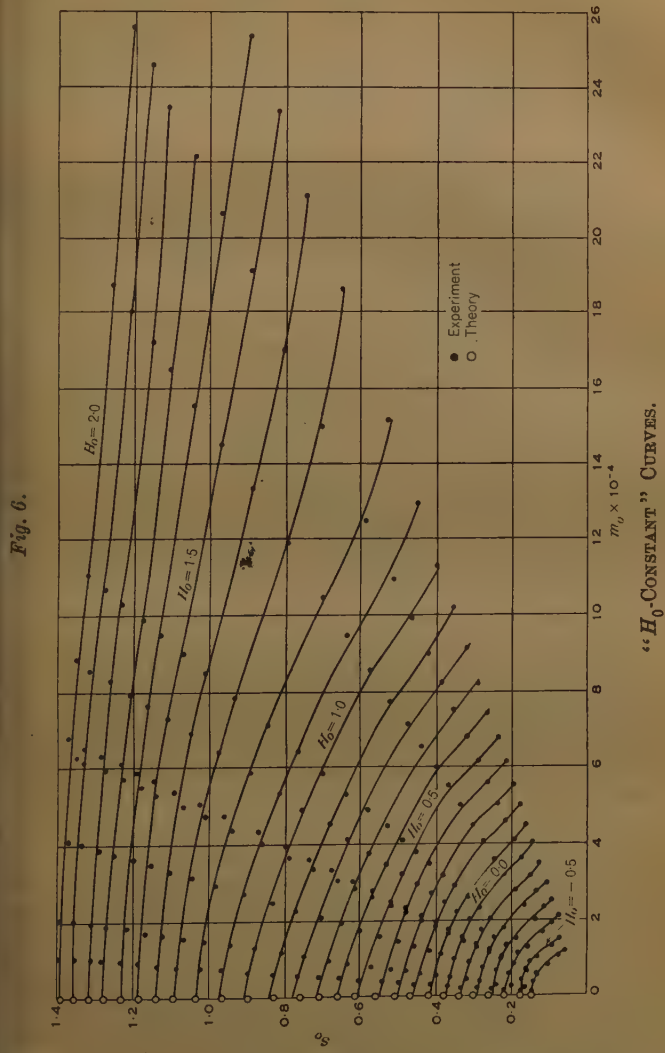
$$H = D = s^2.$$

Since $s = m/\alpha$, it follows that the asymptotes to the "α₀-constant" curves are given by the equations:

$$H_0 = m_0^2/\alpha_0^2 \text{ and } D_0 = m_0^2/\alpha_0^2.$$

The asymptotes to some of the curves, calculated from these equations, are shown as broken lines in Figs. 4 and 5, Plate I. The H_0 -curves lie above the D_0 -curves below, their corresponding asymptotes, and, as H_0 and D_0 increase, they will approach each other, and finally come together at the appropriate asymptote. This indicates that, in the limit, the level

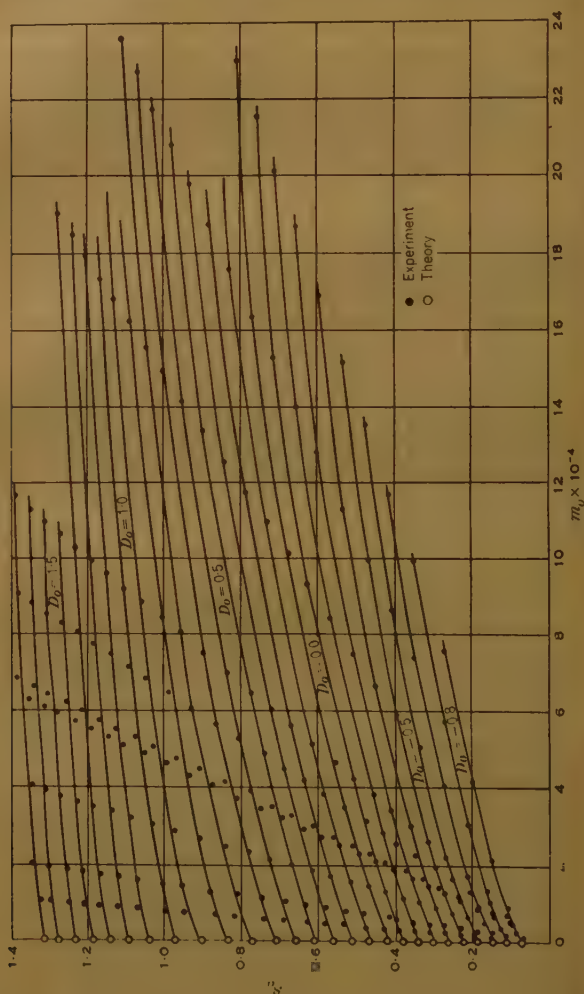
tank remains constant, and the inflow Q is, at all times, equal to the q . These asymptotes, which were easily derived, provided a very check on the accuracy of this initial representation of the experi- results.



the “ α_0 -constant” curves do not give the results in the most useful or direct practical use. They were, therefore, transposed into a convenient form of “ H_0 -constant” and “ D_0 -constant” curves with s_0 , as co-ordinates. The “ H_0 -constant” curves, Fig. 6, were obtained

from Figs. 4, Plate 1, by taking a fixed value of H_0 and finding various m_0 where an H_0 -line, drawn parallel to the m_0 -axis, cuts the α_0 -curves. For a given value of H_0 , it was thus possible to determine corresponding values of m_0 and s_0 , and hence to plot the " H_0 -constant" curves.

Fig. 7.



" D_0 -constant" curves, Fig. 7, were derived in the same way from Fig. 4, Plate 1. Both sets of curves in Figs. 6 and 7 are drawn in intervals of 0.1 units, H_0 being given from -0.6 to 2.0 and D_0 from -0.8 to 1.9 .

If m_0 and α_0 are both very small but the ratio s_0 finite, it may be shown that

¹ Dr A. G. Walker, and J. R. Daymond, "On a Hydraulic Problem Involving the Discharge into Tidal Water." *Phil. Mag.*, vol. 28 (1939), p. 520 (November, 1939).

the points on the s_0 -axis, where H_0 is equal to D_0 , may be calculated by the elliptic integrals :

$$s_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-H_0}^1 \left(\frac{H_0 + x}{1 - x^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx, \text{ for } H_0 \leq 1,$$

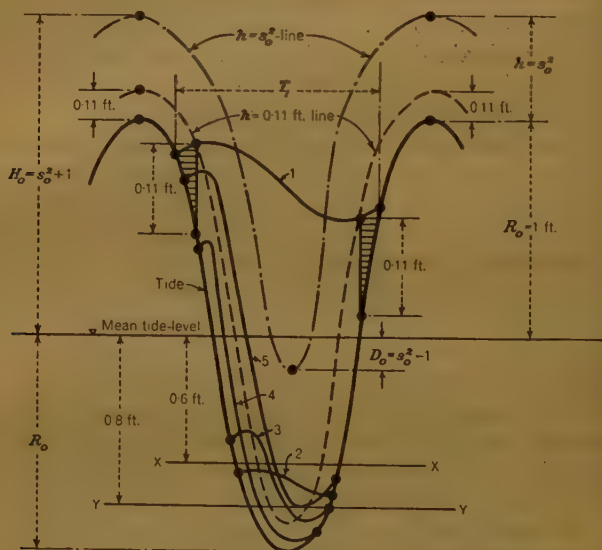
$$s_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \left(\frac{H_0 + x}{1 - x^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx, \text{ for } H_0 \geq 1.$$

Points obtained from the evaluation of the above integrals are shown as small circles in *Figs. 6* and *7*. It is seen that the curves, drawn to pass through the points obtained by experiment, also tend to pass through these theoretical end-points, thus demonstrating very clearly the close agreement between the theoretical and experimental results.

Whilst it may not be strictly true, it is reasonable to presume that the results will be sufficiently accurate if it is assumed that the law of discharge, given by equation (2), holds in nature. Hence, by the laws of hydraulic similitude, all experimental results are transformable for the values of h for which equation (2) is true for the model, since the equations of transformation were derived on the assumption that the law of discharge is equally true in all cases. When h was less than 0.11 foot, the flow in the model no longer conformed to equation (2). Hence, "z-curves" with h always less than 0.11 foot cannot be transformed, since the laws of similitude for the model and in nature are now different. In every "z-curve" there will be a part where h is less than 0.11 foot, as indicated by the shaded regions of the diagram for curve 1, *Fig. 8* (p. 230). Hence, a "z-curve" cannot be accurately transformed for the whole time of discharge T_1 . For cases likely to arise in practice, however, the time during which h is less than 0.11 will be small compared with T_1 , both for the model and in nature, so that the error introduced by transformation will be very small.

Curves for H_0 less than — 0.6 foot and D_0 less than — 0.8 foot have not been included in the results, and are therefore omitted from *Figs. 6* and *7*. Hence, any curve such as curve 2, *Fig. 8*, with its maximum below the line X X at 0.6 foot from mean tide-level, is excluded, and a curve such as curve 3, with its minimum below Y Y at 0.8 foot from mean tide-level, is excluded. These curves are not important, since they lie in regions unlikely to be used in practice. It will be noted that any "z-curve" such as curve 4, *Fig. 8*, which is wholly within the space bounded by the solid curve and the dotted curve drawn at a height of 0.11 feet above the solid curve, as its minimum below Y Y and is excluded from the experimental results, since it is another case of curve 3. The greatest error of transformation from the family of " D_0 -constant" curves will arise for curves which are near to the $h = 0.11$ line and for which $D_0 = -0.8$, as illustrated

by curve 5, *Fig. 8*. As D_0 increases the "z-curves" approach the tide curve 1, where h will be large for the greater part of the discharge period. Hence, it is clear that the accuracy of transformation will increase as D_0 increases. It is only in exceptional circumstances that it is necessary to design a scheme with D_0 small, and so, for most practical purposes the results given in *Figs. 6* and *7* may be used with a very reasonable degree of accuracy. In any case, before finally accepting the experimental results as a basis for design, it is always advisable to check results by the graphical method given in the Appendix (p. 235).

Fig. 8.

Considering the "unit tide", equation (3) may be written

$$\frac{1}{m_0} \frac{dz}{dt} = 1 - \frac{h^{\frac{1}{2}}}{s_0}.$$

When m_0 and α_0 are both very large, but s_0 is finite, the left-hand side of this equation becomes very small, and in the limit $h = s_0^2$. This shows that the "z-curve" follows the tide and is at all times a height s_0^2 above the mean tide level, as shown by the chain-dotted curve, *Fig. 8*. From the figure it is clear that for $H_0 \geq 1$,

$$H_0 = s_0^2 + 1,$$

thus giving the equations to the asymptotes of the appropriate "constant" curves of *Fig. 6*. For H_0 less than 1, it may be easily seen that the " H_0 -constant" curves will cut the m -axis. Since it leads to a discussion of a region for which no experimental results are available,

purpose is served in pursuing the theory. However, it is interesting in *Fig. 6* the tendency for the curves, for which $H_0 \geq 1$, to be asymptotic as m_0 increases, and for the remaining " H_0 -constant" curves the m -axis. The " D_0 -constant" curves are asymptotic for all of D_0 and are given by the equation:—

$$D_0 = s_0^2 - 1$$

As can be seen from *Fig. 8*. The asymptotic properties of the curves are shown in *Fig. 7*.

From the foregoing discussion, useful and substantive information has been obtained concerning the behaviour of the " H_0 -" and " D_0 -constant" curves for which no experimental results can be known, that is for m_0 zero, or m_0 very large. Not only was it thus possible to confirm some of the experimental results, but also this theoretical information enabled the results to be drawn with confidence and accuracy.

DISCUSSION ON THE VALUE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS.

The curves of *Figs. 6* and *7*, with the theoretical and experimental results omitted, have been combined in one diagram, *Fig. 9*, Plate 1, showing H_0 - and D_0 -contours with the tank- and outfall-factors, m_0 and s_0 , as coordinates. The curves are thus conveniently exhibited in terms of m_0 , and D_0 , from which solutions to problems may be quickly obtained. Between these curves others for intermediate values of H_0 and D_0 are readily obtained by direct interpolation, since the curves given are openly and evenly spaced. In the discussion and examples to follow, the diagram of *Fig. 9*, Plate 1, will be referred to as "the field." The difference between H_0 and D_0 , where the contours intersect, gives the depth of tank, Δ_0 . One example for $\Delta_0 = 0.4$, is shown dotted. When considering problems in which the depth of the tank is fixed, the derivation of solutions will be facilitated by drawing the appropriate Δ_0 -curve on "the field."

Application. It remains now to consider some examples illustrating the use of "the field" and, at the same time, to discuss some points which arise in the design of tanks and outfalls.

In the following examples, the coefficient of friction f is taken as 0.01, and values of L are presumed to include for bends, valves, etc. All dimensions are in foot-second units and all heights are measured from mean water level.

Example 1. Given: $Q = 3.0$, $H = 10.3$, $A = 7500$, $R = 12.0$,
 $L = 5500$, $T = 12$ hours 24 minutes.

To determine d and Δ .

$$H_0 = \frac{10.3}{12.0} = 0.86 \text{ and } m = \frac{Q}{A} = 4.0 \times 10^{-4},$$

and hence from equations (12) :

$$m_0 = 4.133 \times 10^{-4}.$$

By interpolation for the $H_0 = 0.86$ contour, inspection of "the" shows that, for the given value of m_0 :

$$s_0 = 0.665 \text{ and } D_0 = 0.37.$$

Transforming these results back, equations (12) give :

$$D = 4.44 \text{ and } s = 2.302.$$

Thus the required depth of tank is given by :

$$\Delta = H - D = 5.86.$$

Using the relations :

$$sk = Q \text{ and } k = \pi \left(\frac{gd^5}{32fl} \right) \quad \dots \quad (13a) \text{ and } (13b)$$

it will be found that $d = 1.566$.

With this value of d and the above data, a graphical solution is given by the "periodic z -curve" IV, Fig. 11, Plate 1 (see Appendix). The graphical solution gives $\Delta = 6.1$ feet, which agrees within 4 per cent with "the field" solution.

Example 2. Supposing d is fixed at a commercial size of pipe 1.5, and with the data of example 1, it is required to determine A and Δ .

From equation (13b), $k = 1.17$.

From equation (13a), $s = 2.563$.

From equations (12) $s_0 = 0.739$.

From "the field" (using the curve for $H_0 = 0.86$) :

$$m_0 = 2.45 \times 10^{-4} \text{ and } D_0 = 0.615.$$

Hence, from equations (12) :

$$m = 2.373 \times 10^{-4},$$

whence $A = 12,640$, $D = 7.38$ and $\Delta = 2.92$.

Effect of change in R .

In the previous examples solutions have been obtained for one tide only. In designing a scheme, however, it is essential to know what changes are produced in the tank-levels when the tides change in range from spring to neaps, to ensure that the scheme, as designed for one tide, is satisfactory for any other tide. It will now be shown, by means of an example, how "the field" may be used to determine these changes; no general conclusion can be drawn, but it is important to note that any design should be checked by the methods of the following example.

Example 3. In Table I values of R are given as obtained from a tide-table in which the range ($2R$) varies from 47.83 to 32.5. By means of

field" a design is obtained for the spring tide, then with the known A and d for this design, that is, with m and s fixed, it is possible, "the field" and by transformation, to obtain H and D for each successive tide consequent upon the change in R .

$= 21.55$, $Q = 8.45$, $T = 12.4$, $L = 5500$, and $d = 2.0$.

the spring tide :

$$H_0 = 0.9 \text{ (approximately) and } s_0 = 0.717.$$

"the field" :

$$m_0 = 3.76 \times 10^{-4} \text{ and } D_0 = 11.96.$$

results are shown in line 1, Table I.

TABLE I.

	s_0	$m_0 \times 10^{-4}$	H_0	D_0	H	D	Line.
5	0.717	3.760	0.900	0.500	21.55	11.96	1
35	0.718	3.780	0.900	0.502	21.40	11.94	2
60	0.723	3.825	0.914	0.508	21.50	11.98	3
75	0.729	3.885	0.928	0.520	21.45	12.00	4
90	0.738	3.990	0.943	0.535	21.15	12.08	5
100	0.748	4.080	0.964	0.550	21.20	12.10	6
110	0.758	4.230	0.979	0.560	20.80	11.90	7
115	0.766	4.300	0.993	0.570	20.75	11.93	8
125	0.782	4.470	1.020	0.600	20.50	12.08	9
140	0.789	4.550	1.030	0.607	20.30	11.97	10
160	0.804	4.730	1.053	0.635	20.00	12.06	11
180	0.822	4.975	1.083	0.655	19.55	11.85	12
200	0.838	5.110	1.105	0.675	19.45	11.85	13
250	0.843	5.210	1.116	0.680	19.25	11.73	14
300	0.863	5.450	1.148	0.709	18.95	11.69	15
350	0.870	5.530	1.158	0.723	18.80	11.74	16

dition :

$H - D = 9.59$, $m = 7.25$ 10, $A = 11650$, and $s = 3.51$.

Using the above dimensions of tank and outfall, m and s are now fixed for the next tide, $R = 23.785$, transformations for m_0 and s_0 allow derivation of H_0 and D_0 from "the field." Further transformations for H and D .

This process is repeated for successive tides, and the results shown in the Table give the variation of maximum and minimum tank-levels in a complete tide cycle. It should be noted, however, that the results are for the "periodic z -curve" and not for the continuous " z -curve." However, H and D change slowly from one tide to the next, the difference between the "periodic" and continuous " z -curves" will be small. For all practical purposes, the results may be accepted as representing true values of H and D .

In Table I, it will be seen that H decreases with R , and therefore a tank, as designed for the spring tide, will not be completely filled on the other tide. For all values of R , D shows very little fluctuation; if D is less than 11.96, the tank will empty some time before it begins to fill up again. For some tides D exceeds 11.96, in which case the tank will not completely empty itself on a tide, and the stored liquid will be carried forward to the next tide. In this example, the tank will not completely empty for a number of successive tides; the residue will, however, be so small that for all practical purposes it may be neglected and the results may be regarded as satisfactory.

If the scheme is designed for neap tides, $R = 16.25$, it will be seen that $s_0 = 0.8725$, $H_0 = 1.327$, $m_0 = 10.6 \times 10^{-4}$, $D_0 = 0.545$, $A = 8.86$, and $\Delta = 7.39$. With this design, and deriving results for spring tides by the procedure explained above, it can be shown that $H = 27.10$ and $D = 7.89$. It is thus evident that this design is quite inadequate to deal with the flow under spring-tide conditions.

It is, of course, advisable to provide a margin of safety in design. A convenient method is to increase d , for it can be shown, by reference to "the field", that both H and D are decreased as required. On the other hand, an increase in A is not satisfactory, because this leads to an increase in D and the tank may not empty during each tide.

Most Economical Scheme. In each example considered, two of the factors m_0 , s_0 , H_0 , D_0 , have been fixed, and the remaining two derived from "the field," which two, after transformation, provide a definite solution to the problem. In most practical cases, however, only Q , L , T , and H are known, and these quantities fix H_0 only in the above factors. Since a solution can be found when any two factors are fixed, it follows that, fixing one only (for example, H_0), there are a large number of possible solutions. Given a choice of solutions which will satisfy the conditions of the problem, it is evident that the one to choose is the one providing the most economical scheme.

In deriving solutions from "the field" for the given H_0 -contour, a series of values for m_0 , s_0 , and D_0 are obtained, which after transformation provide the corresponding values for A , D , and d . Having regard to practical restrictions which may be imposed upon A , Δ , and d , and having ascertained the method of example 3 that the proposed schemes prove satisfactory, the range of R between spring tides and neap tides, the procedure

is to determine the most economical scheme of those proposed by finding the cost of each one. As will be appreciated, costs are influenced by various conditions, and bear no simple relationship to A , d , L and Δ , so that a useful purpose is served if this theoretical discussion is extended to include a problem which introduces costs.

Though a complete solution to the particular problem of the Paper has not been obtained, it is appreciated that many problems still remain. In this place, "the field" will allow a thorough analysis to be made, not only early with a view to finding general conclusions on the subject of the effect of variation of the tank-, outfall-, and tide-factors. There are, again, problems such as are given by a variation in Q , prohibited discharge, and cases where the end of the outfall is above low-level, all of which it is proposed to consider in future research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

The Author wishes to thank the Engineering Faculty of Liverpool University for permission to carry out experiments in their hydraulic laboratory, and for a grant from their Pacific Steam Navigation Research Fund towards the cost of the apparatus.

The Author is also deeply indebted to Dr. A. G. Walker of the Pure Mathematics Department, Liverpool University, for his help and advice in the more mathematical part of this work.

This Paper is accompanied by nine sheets of drawings, from some of which Plate 1 and the Figures in the text have been prepared, and by the following Appendix.

APPENDIX.

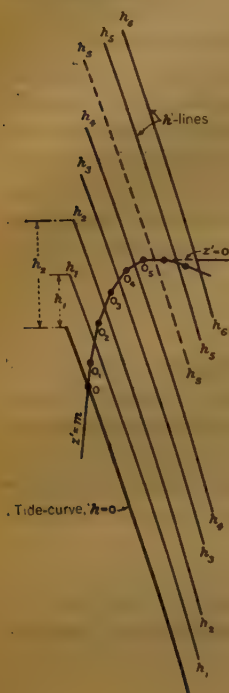
Graphical method of obtaining the "z-curve." Writing z' for dz/dt , equation (3)

$$z' = m - \alpha\sqrt{h} \quad \dots \dots \dots (14)$$

it is seen that, for fixed values of m and α , the slope of the "z-curve" is constant for all positive values of h ; when h is negative $z' = m$. Hence, as shown in Fig. 10 (p. 236), by drawing a similar set of tide curves to the original one, but at heights $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_s, \dots, h_5$, etc. above it, the value of z' is known where the "z-curve" cuts these lines, which will be hereafter referred to as " h -lines." The slopes derived from equation (14) for lines $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_s, \dots, h_5$, etc. are represented by $z'_1, z'_2, \dots, z'_s, \dots, z'_5$, etc. The graphical construction of the "z-curve" is as follows. First the h -lines are drawn vertically above the tide curves (Fig. 10), as mentioned above. Then, starting at any point such as o_2 , midway between the " h_1 -" and " h_2 -" lines, a line is drawn at a slope z'_2 to o_3 , which is a point midway between the " h_2 -" and " h_3 -" lines. Similarly o_4 , the point midway between h_3 and h_4 lines can be found, by drawing a line at slope z'_3 from o_3 to o_4 . Repeating this construction, the whole "z-curve" may be derived, the points o_1 and o being

found by inverse construction from o_2 . In *Fig. 10*, the "z-curve" is shown to the tide curve; the construction is quite general, however, and holds for cases where h is always positive and for any shape of tide curve.

Fig. 10.



At $h = 0$, $z' = m$, the z curve cuts the tide slope m . When $h = \frac{m^2}{\alpha^2} = s^2$, $z' = 0$, and the "z-curve" is a maximum or minimum; this h -line is solid and dotted in *Fig. 10*. When h is less than s^2 , z' is positive and when h is greater than s^2 , z' is negative.

Writing $h = z - \zeta$, $d^2z/dt^2 = z''$, $d\zeta/dt = \zeta'$, and differentiating (14), it is seen that $z' = 0$ when $\zeta' = \zeta''$; at the point of inflexion, it is theoretically impossible to derive the "z-curve" graphically, since there is no intersection with the "h-lines." When $z' = 0$, however, the "z-curve" has small curvature, and if the "h-lines" are drawn close together in the region of inflexion, the "z-curves" may be projected through this region with reasonable accuracy. To make *Fig. 10* clear, only a few "h-lines" are shown. It will be realized, of course, that the closer together these lines are drawn, the more accurate will the results be.

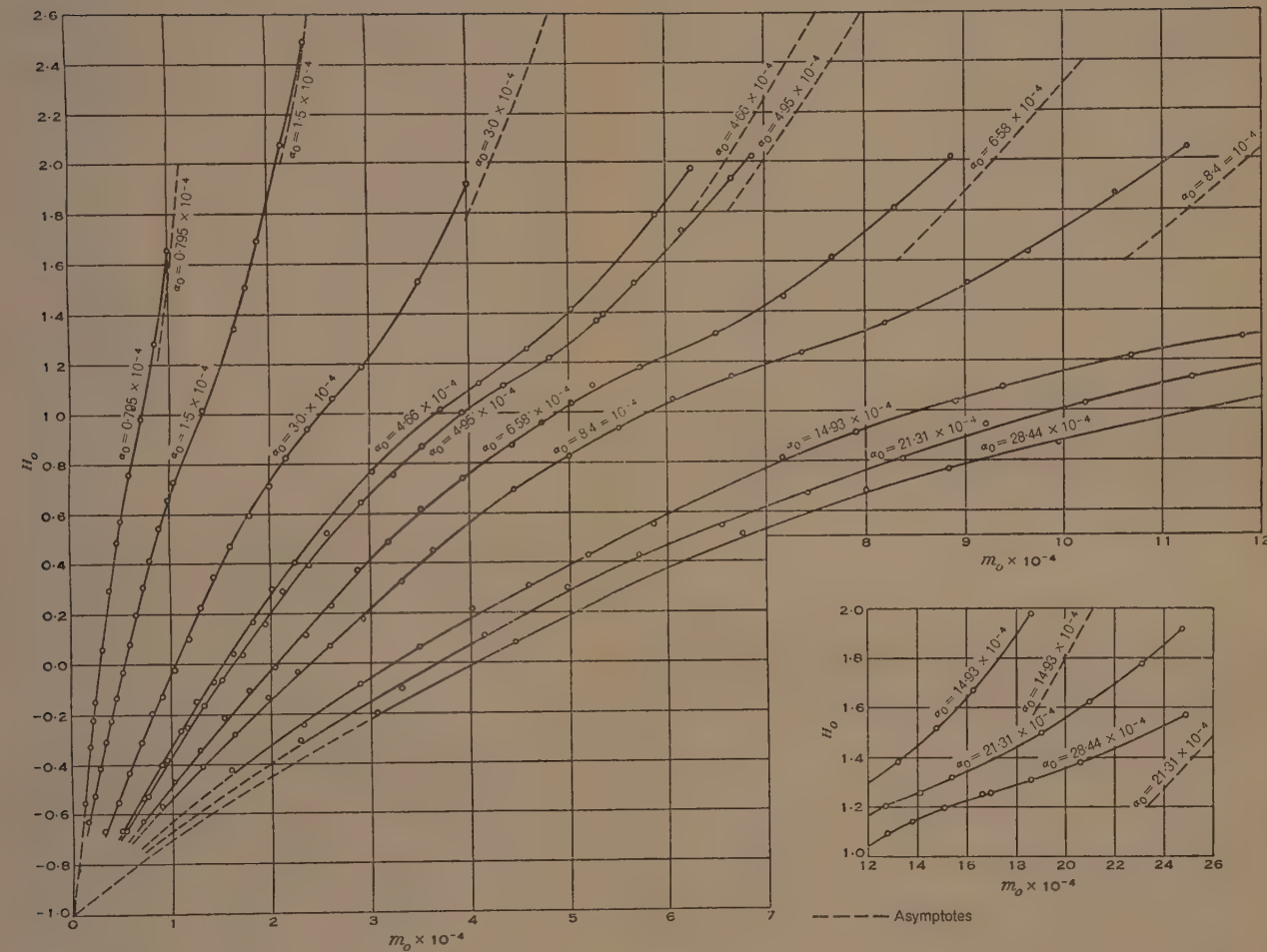
A series of "z-curves" were obtained graphically from the tide curve, and numbered I, II, III, and IV, as shown in *Fig. 11*, Plate 1. The values essential to the construction are: $R = 1.0$, $T = 248$, $m = 0.006$, $\alpha = 1.0$ in foot-second units. The "h-lines" are drawn at 1-foot intervals, and with this ratio of the intervals the "z-curves" are practically coincident with the derived tangents. The curves I, II, and III have been drawn continuous, each one beginning on the tide curve at a point where the preceding one finished. Curve IV begins and finishes on the tide curve for the same value of z and is thus a "periodic z-curve." This curve is used to provide a check on solutions obtained from the "field." (See example I, p. 231.)

Since the graphical construction permits the "z-curve" to be started on any "h-line", it is convenient to start on the "h₅-line" when checking the "field" solution for H and D . The check may

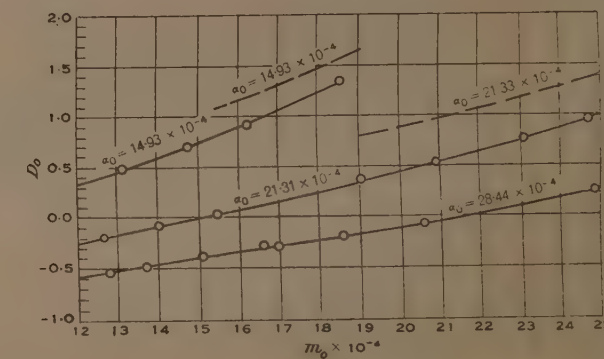
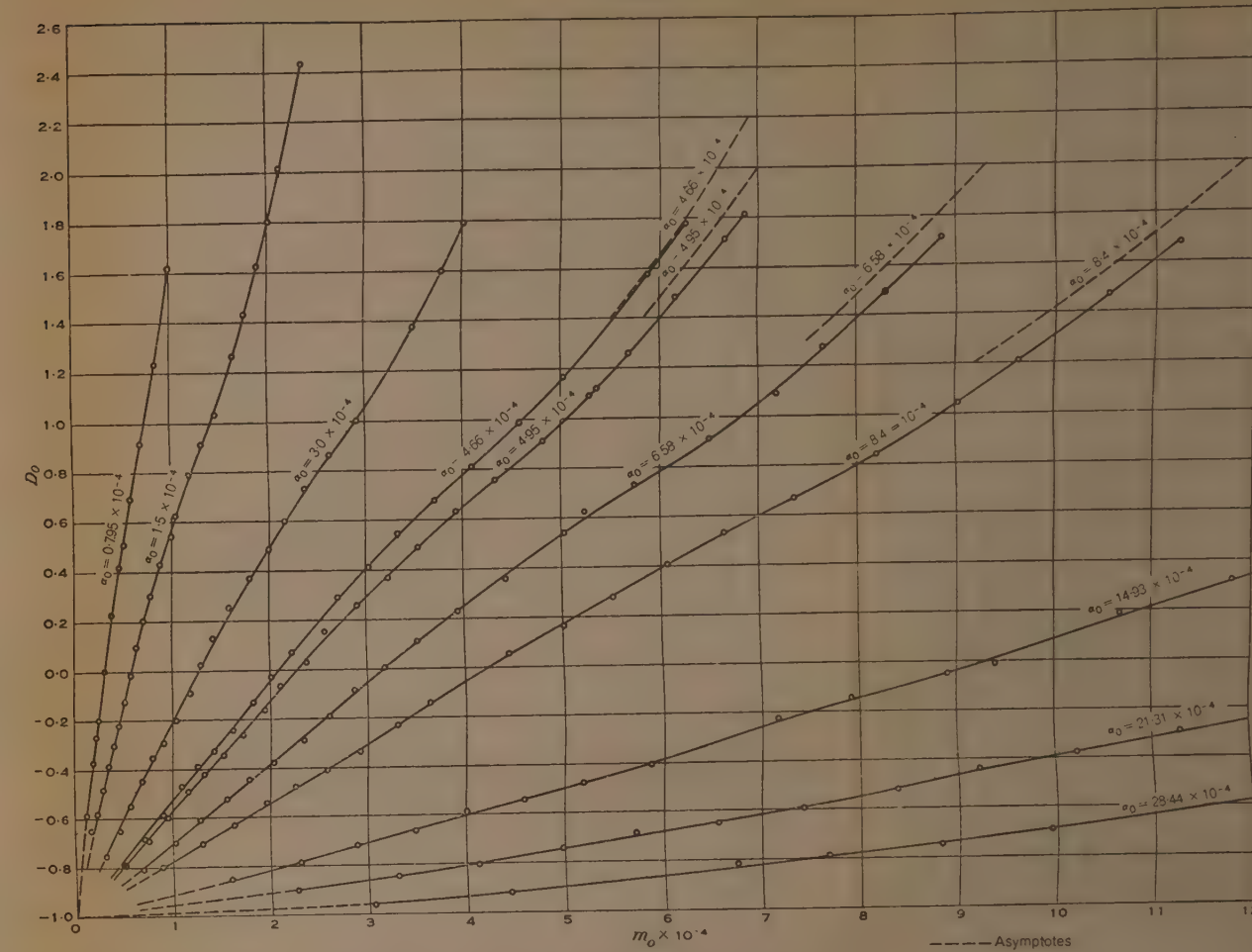
be completed by constructing the remainder of the "z-curve" to verify if it is a "periodic z-curve" or not.

FIGS: 5.

FIGS: 4.



" α_0 -CONSTANT" CURVES FOR H_0



" α_0 -CONSTANT" CURVES FOR D_0

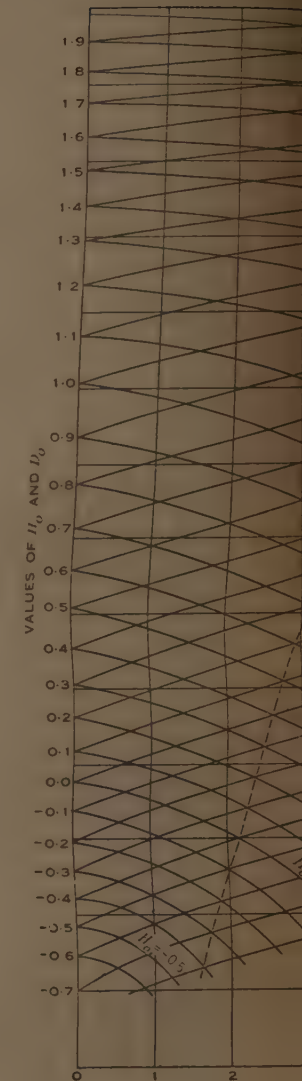
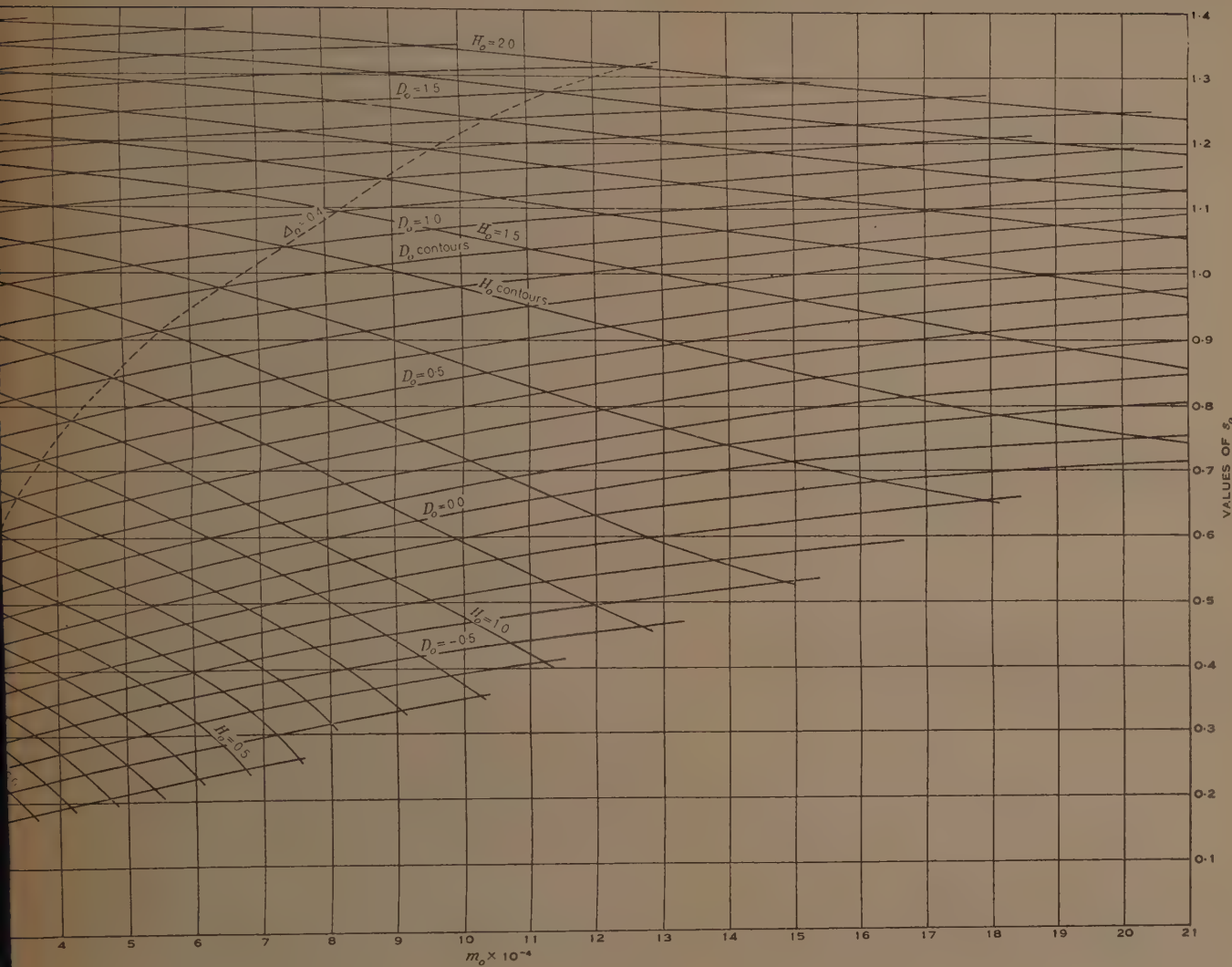
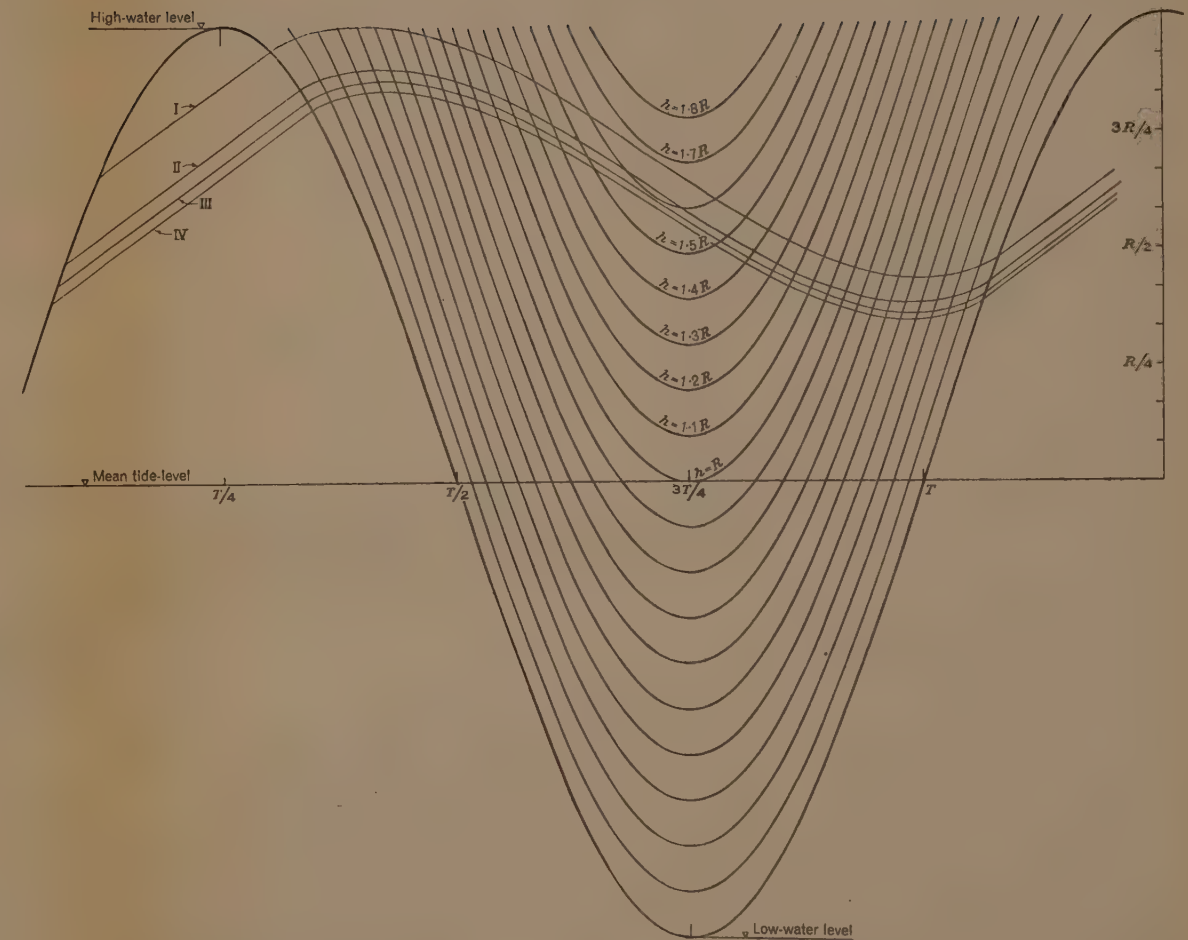


FIG: 9.



"THE FIELD"

FIG: 11.



TYPICAL "z-CURVES" (I, II, AND III), AND PERIODIC "z-CURVE" (IV)

Paper No. 5220.

"The Kidlington Bridges."

By ISAAC KURSBATT, B.Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E.

Ordered by the Council to be published with written discussion.)¹

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INTRODUCTION.

ject of the Paper is to describe the works carried out by the Oxford-
bounty Council on the Oxford-Banbury road (A.423) at Kidlington,
s approximately 6 miles from Oxford.

merly the road was carried over the Great Western Railway (Oxford-
gham branch), by a three-span skew bridge consisting of a central
rder span of 37 feet and two side brick-arch spans of 18 feet 5 inches.
up" and "down" lines are connected by a crossing under the
girder span, the north arch accommodating a loop for goods traffic.
th arch span was never used. The brick-arched structure was
out the year 1840, but records are not available. In 1925 the
cast-iron arched-girder span was replaced by steel plate-girders
ted by concrete-backed brick jack-arches, the carriageway being
d at the same time for the increase of road traffic which was then
nt.

ut 350 feet north of this point, the road was carried over the Oxford-
gham Canal by a stone-arch bridge built in 1788, which was widened
east side about 1845 with three flat-arched cast-iron girders spanned
-iron troughing. There was a sharp S-bend in the roadway between
dges and a steep gradient on the south approach to the canal
with a cottage on its north side obscuring the view in a southerly

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direction. The junction of Langford lane, which connects the F road with the Woodstock road (A.42), emerged on the north side of a sharp bend. This junction, therefore, was extremely dangerous and was the scene of a number of fatal accidents.

Census figures show that traffic on this section of the road has increased by 78 per cent. since 1931, and it was essential to effect an improvement. Fig. 1, Plate 1, shows the plan of the old road with the new works imposed.

CONSIDERATIONS AFFECTING THE DESIGN.

It will be seen from Fig. 1, Plate 1, that re-alignment of the road was of primary importance. Two reverse curves of approximately 3,000 feet radius joined by a short straight were found to be suitable for linking-up with the existing road at the extremities, the entire length of the diversion being 1,600 feet. All further considerations were consequently based on this line.

Originally allowance was made for a formation of 50 feet, and the approximate position of the railway bridge was fixed. Consideration was then given to the possibility of widening the existing bridge on both sides, but the complications introduced by the crossing previously mentioned made it necessary to carry out extensive alterations to the track and signals in order to extend the pier on the north side, and to meet the required clearances from the track. Since the inconvenience and the comparatively large expenditure necessary to effect these alterations were out of proportion to the magnitude of the scheme, it was agreed with the Railway Company to close the opening to the south arch and replace the remaining two openings by a single skew span of 79 feet 8 inches over three tracks, the square span being 49 feet 6 inches.

The final level of the crown of the road on this bridge was the determining factor in determining the gradients of both road-approaches, and consequently the gradients of the accommodation roads. It was, therefore, necessary to keep the constructional depth down to an absolute minimum. Previous experience in the county indicated that a fixed-ended frame type of bridge would best meet the requirements. The gradient aimed at for the approaches was 1 in 30, with the standard parabolic curve of 550 feet, giving a visibility of 500 feet at a height of 3 feet 9 inches. On the south approach this was possible, but on the north approach the vertical curve had to be foreshortened slightly and the gradient steepened to 1 in 27 in order to give agreeable gradients to the railway-station approach and the accommodation road to the hotel and the farm beyond.

Referring to the site plan, it will be seen that the new line of the road made an extremely acute angle with the old canal, so acute, in fact, that it was impracticable to build a bridge with the canal in this position.

angles of skew were investigated in order to estimate the minimum cost of bridge and canal-diversion. This analysis showed that of 45 degrees was most economical. The crown of the road was now fixed by the gradient and its position. Canal-diversion, also the fairway clearances by the Canal Company, only a question of the type of bridge which would suit the requirements of available constructional depth. The consideration of various structures resulted in the arched steel portal frame being adopted. The formation works which formed a comparatively large monetary item in the scheme were reduced to a minimum. The width of the formation was approximately increased to 60 feet to allow for a 30-foot carriageway, footpaths, and cycle-tracks.

BORINGS.

A number of trial holes were opened out on the site of the new railway and in each case cornbrash was found at approximately 5 feet below rail-level, which is 211·00 O.D. On the site of the canal bridge the borings indicated the cornbrash at 198·00 O.D. which is 12 feet below rail-level, the subsoil above this level being mainly sand.

DESIGN.

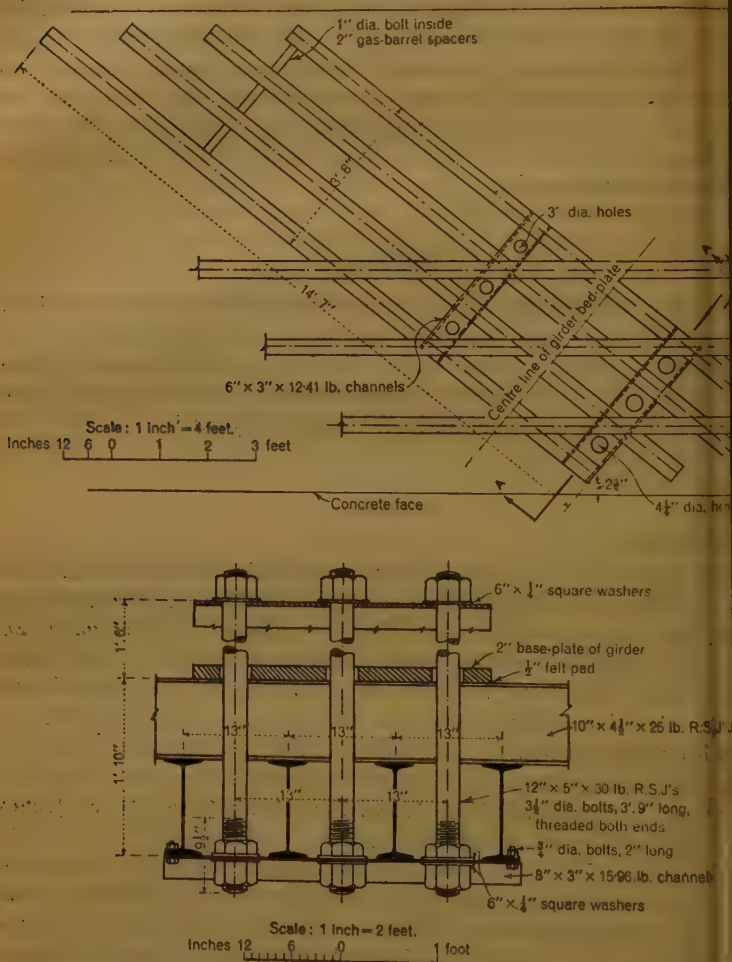
Bridge.

An essential feature of the design was to obtain a suitable architecture consistent with economy and small constructional depth. With that end in view, the soffit was curved to follow the railway-clearance gauge and the structure was faced, where possible, with the local rubble-stone known as "boddies," with dressed quoins, string-course, and a coping of stone from the Farmington quarries near Northleach, Gloucestershire. On the exterior of the girders, the concrete covering was made to match the Cornbrash stone with No. 2 cream "Colorcrete" cement, which will be described later. Fig. 2, Plate 1, and Figs. 3 and 4 (pp. 240-241), show general details of the construction.

The girders, which are at an angle of 38 degrees 59 minutes 40 seconds to the horizontal, have a span of 81 feet $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches between main supports and are spaced at 8-foot $9\frac{1}{4}$ -inch centres. The spacing of the cross bracing frames is 5 feet 5 inches. Although the clearance allowed above the highest rail-level is 14 feet 6 inches, a further 4 inches was added to the central 65 feet of the girder to give some camber to the soffit. By giving 2 inches of camber to the top flange, the extra 4 inches rise to the soffit was partially counteracted. The depth over the flange-plates at the ends is 2 feet $9\frac{3}{4}$ inches, which is $\frac{1}{15}$ of the clear span. At the design stage it seemed likely that the bridge would have been constructed in two sections to allow for the maintenance of a road

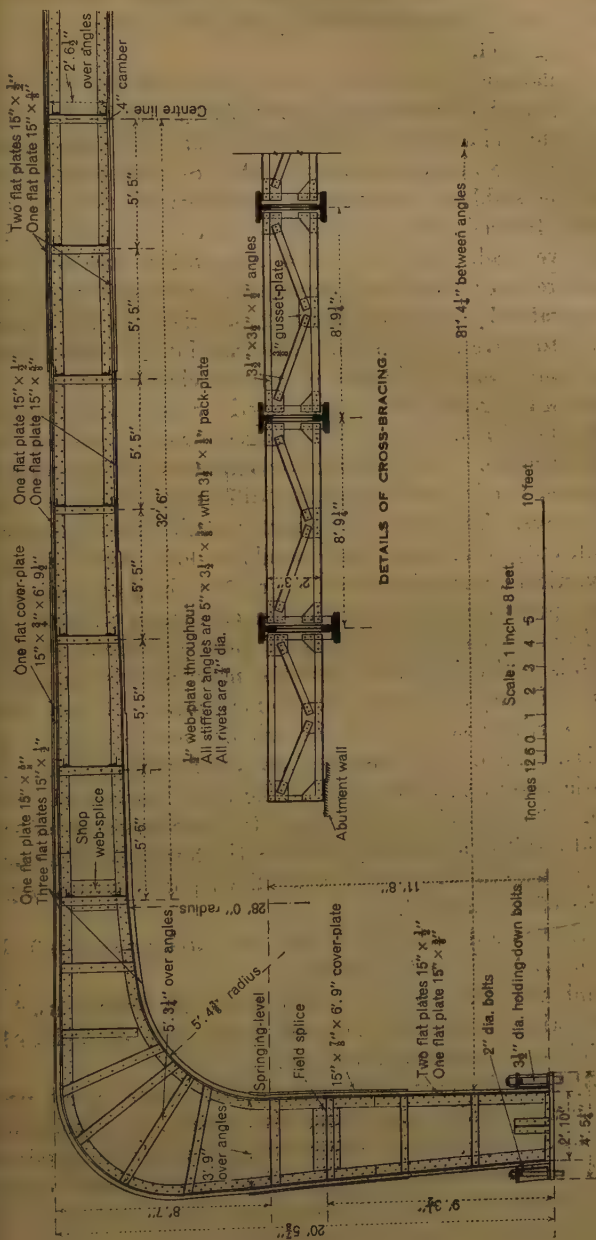
traffic route; it was important, therefore, that the design should be for that contingency. The working stresses in the deck slab were : per square inch compression in concrete, and 16,000 lb. per square

Figs. 3.



tension in steel, the former corresponding to the $3 : 1\frac{1}{2} : 1$ grade of concrete allowed by the Ministry of Transport. By arranging the main span between the cross-frames and the distributing steel between the girders, it was possible to build a portion of the bridge and avoid overhanging transversely, which might hamper the erection of an additional girder. The overall depth of the slab is 8 inches, allowing for 1-

Fig. 4.



DETAILS OF GIRDERS FOR RAILWAY BRIDGE.

minimum cover over the reinforcement, the latter consisting of diameter bars at $5\frac{1}{2}$ -inch centres, with $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch diameter bars at 7-inch centres as distributing steel.

The calculations for the fixed-ended portal followed, with slight modifications, the method developed by Mr. A. G. Hayden¹. This, which is a practical adaptation of Mohr's theorem, enables the designer to obtain a complete analysis of any number of points around the structure from which he is able to compute the scantlings necessary for all stresses. Account was taken in these computations of dead load and Minimum Transport live load, together with a temperature rise or fall only. Earth-pressure effects were not considered, since the vertical limbs are entirely separated by expansion-jointing material from the abutments and are free to move inside them. The omission of earth-pressure effects in portal frames was considered to have decided advantages generally and with skew bridges in particular. Earth-pressure acting at the base of the abutments of monolithic skew bridges forms a twisting moment on the entire structure. It is possible to compute some approximate values for the couple, but it would be rather difficult to translate the results in terms of stresses. The torsional moments would probably affect the design of most of all, but, in addition, there would be longitudinal shearing stresses along the vertical limbs which would be greatest along the points of fixity.

Another point deserving mention in connexion with the usual design of portal frame is the effect of passive earth-pressure. When the horizontal limb is loaded it deflects, and the movement is transmitted to the vertical limbs if they are free to take up movement. If they are restrained by passive earth-pressure, then the original assumption of complete flexibility is modified. It is possible, however, for the back-filling to be treated as an elastic mass and allow part of the small horizontal movement to take place. The restraint thus offered to the movement of the vertical limbs would result in a tendency to make the horizontal limb act exactly as an ordinary encastred beam or as a modified portal frame, depending on the elasticity of the back-fill.

It was therefore decided to obviate the earth-pressure effects entirely by the method adopted in this design.

The combined effects of bending moment and direct thrust were taken into account in the calculations of the final stresses, which were limited to 9 tons per square inch in compression and tension.

Three $3\frac{1}{2}$ -inch-diameter holding-down bolts were found necessary to resist the eccentric loading at the base of the frame. To enable these bolts to be centred accurately during construction, they were fixed rigidly by means of cross-channels and locking nuts to 12-inch by 5-inch steel joists spaced in the direction of the main girders, with a layer of 10-inch by 4-inch steel joists parallel to the face of the abutment (*Fig. 4*, p. 241). The

¹ "The Rigid Frame Bridge." Chapman & Hall, Ltd., London, 1931.

sed in a concrete abutment 10 feet wide by 3 feet deep. Partly on purposes, and partly to allow for the possibility of a reversal nt at the base, three 2-inch-diameter bolts were allowed on the ion side.

splice-joints were arranged near the points of inflexion in the al limb, and field-splices just below the springing points of the ich correspond approximately to the points of inflexion in the imbs. To obviate maintenance costs, the girders are encased in

The minimum cover to the soffit flanges is 2 inches and the a 3-inch covering on either side. Panels are formed between on the horizontal limbs. The flat soffit-curve made it possible ge for all these panels to be identical, thus giving the contractor rtunity to re-use panel-shutter units.

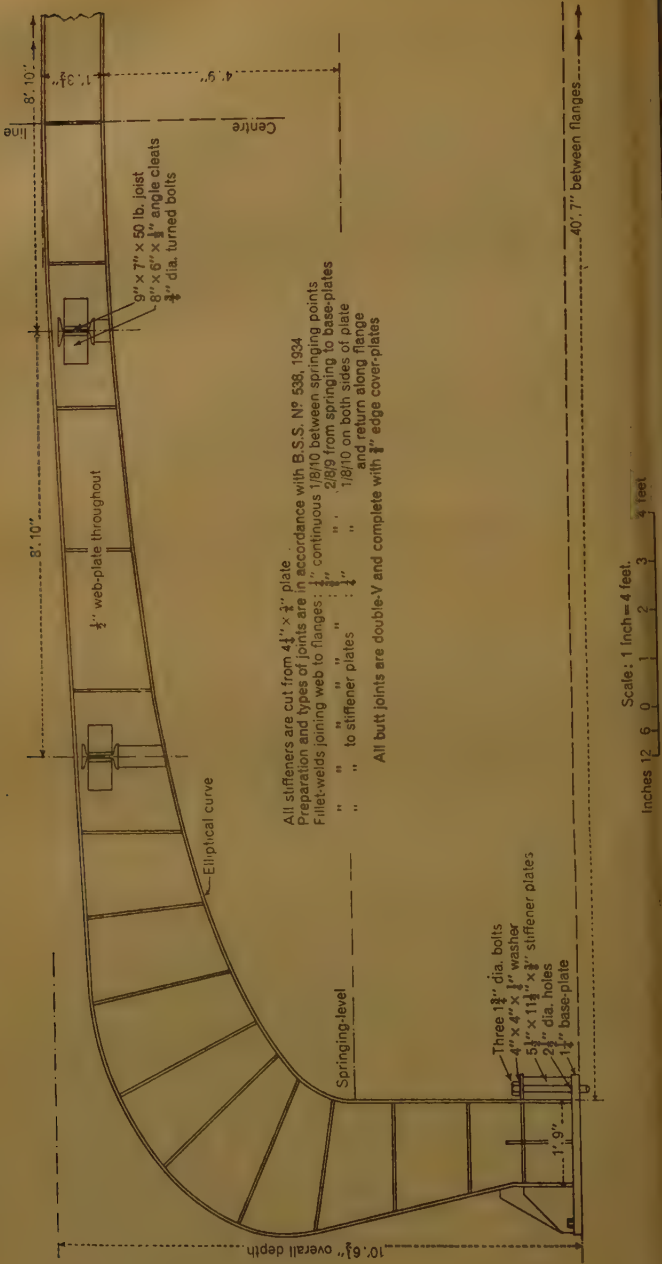
deck slab is of uniform thickness throughout and conforms on erside to the camber and longitudinal curve of the roadway. It proofed with a $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch layer of natural-rock asphalt, and a 2-inch astic asphalt with 1-inch granite chippings forms the final running

etaining- and abutment-walls are in mass concrete.

ridge.

design of this bridge was in many respects similar to that of the rail- ge with the exception of detail (*Fig. 5*, p. 244). In the previous case als were riveted and built up in three sections, but in the canal hey are electrically welded throughout and are complete units. The rve is elliptical and the span between flanges is 40 feet 7 inches overall depth at the crown of 1 foot $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches, giving a crown- o-span ratio of 1 to 30.5. Four continuous $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch fillet welds connect -plate to the flanges on the horizontal limb and the size of the fillet increased to $\frac{3}{8}$ inch on both legs down to the point of fixation on of the increased shear stresses. Butt joints, staggered on intrados rados flanges, are at the approximate points of inflexion. The height of the girders was governed by considerations of transport, Railway Company were consulted during the course of design. to the 1-in-27 gradient of the roadway and the 45-degree angle of was found that the west parapet would be 2 feet 4 inches higher e east parapet. The eight girder-seatings were, therefore, raised ressive steps of 4 inches, the lowest girder when encased in concrete he minimum fairway clearances, and the cross-girder seatings were d accordingly. In that way it was possible to present similar ns on either side. Each cross-girder had to be designed for different levels, lengths, and connexions owing to the contributory effects , extrados profile, and the 4-inch stepping up of the main portals, oducing the effect shown in cross-section YY, *Figs. 6*, Plate 1.

Fig. 5.



radial profile could have been made to suit the gradient of the road, but it was ruled out owing to asymmetry and the unnecessary complications in the calculations. Instead, only one side follows the gradient and the other is made up in concrete.

The concrete encasement of the bases above water-level made them 18 inches in front of the faces of the abutments. If that were to be increased, the span would have had to be increased by 1 foot 2½ inches. It is, therefore, embodied as an architectural feature in the form of a parapet on the abutment faces.

The deck slab was designed for a maximum stress of 750 lb. per square inch in compression in concrete. Advantage was taken of the 45-degree angle creating square bays of 8 feet 10 inches, thus allowing the bending moment to be equally divided in directions parallel to and at angles to the main girders, giving a two-way reinforcing system of 1-inch-diameter bars at 5½-inch centres with an overall slab thickness of 18 inches.

A steel grillage below the bases of the frames was not considered necessary on account of the light loading. The holding-down bolts are, therefore, bedded to a sufficient depth in the abutment to enable a stress of 10,000 lb. per square inch to be developed at the theoretical points of fixation. Right steel templates of welded construction position the lower ends of these bolts which are threaded to receive locking nuts.

Diversion.

The wall of the new diversion was to be formed by 9-foot sheets of steel-concrete piling of 15-inch by 5-inch section and capped with a 6-inch by 1-foot 10-inch cast-in-situ concrete coping, the tops of the former being broken off to expose the reinforcement, which would bond with the coping. The coping is tied back to 3-foot by 1-foot 6-inch by 2-foot concrete by means of 1-inch-diameter bolts at 8-foot intervals. The bottom of the diversion was to be puddled with clay to ensure watertightness.

Drainage and Roadworks.

The filling for embankments was specified to be gravel and would support a temporary roadway 26 feet wide, consisting of 9-inch hand-laid stone well rolled and blinded with gravel which, in turn, would be covered by a 2-inch coating of crushed stone rendered watertight by two separate coats of cold emulsion blinded with ¾-inch clean shingle. The final surface concrete haunching would be completed at a later date to enable the embankment to take up most of its settlement.

CONSTRUCTION.

Railway Bridge.

The contractors decided to build this bridge in two sections instead of using a temporary bridge. The superposition of the site of the new on the existing bridge was such that three portal girders could be placed on the east face when the latter was partially demolished, leaving a single-way traffic route and a 4-foot footpath.

Demolition of this section of the existing structure started on the 1st of May, 1937, one-way traffic being directed by a manually-operated signal. In the meantime, the adjacent mass-concrete wing-walls were partially built up. Owing to the Railway Company's request that not more than 8 feet of the excavations adjacent to the track should be opened at any particular time, concreting to the abutment foundations had to be carried out by the hit-and-miss method. This restriction involved the contractors in some difficulties with the fixing of the steel grillage and holding-down bolts. Lozenge-shaped frames consisting of 6-inch by 6-inch timbers bolted together and 7-inch by 2-inch runners supported the excavations, and allowed the lower members of the grillage which run parallel to the spandrel face-line to be threaded in position. No great quantity of water was encountered and what did appear was amply dealt with by a 2-inch centrifugal self-priming pump. As will be imagined, the timber frames slipped slightly during the removal of the struts when the steel joists were threaded through them, with the result that great care had to be exercised in keeping the excavations safe. Fortunately, for the second half of the structure, the Railway Company agreed to open up the entire excavations for the foundations, using 12-inch by 6-inch steel walings and struts with 9-inch by 3-inch runners. The precautions taken by the Railway Company, however, seemed justifiable since high speed restrictions were placed on the "down" line, and fast passing traffic set up appreciable vibration near the excavations. Accurate positioning of the holding-down bolts was simplified by the use of templates and the $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch clearances in the holes of the grillage channels. The maximum allowable error between centres of $3\frac{1}{2}$ -inch-diameter bolts was $\frac{1}{4}$ inch. The grade of concrete for the encasement was 4 : 2 : 1, local $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch gravel and sand being used. Throughout the contract the cement was measured by weight, on the basis of a density of 90 lb. per cubic foot. The mixing was arranged so that one bag of cement was used for each batch in the hopper.

Three steel portal frames were erected on Sunday, 11 July. They were fabricated at Chepstow and were transported by rail to the site, the handling and placing being effected by the Railway Company's mobile crane. After the legs were set up and accurately spaced, the crane took the lift of the horizontal limb, and, travelling a short distance with its load, landed the splice-joints in position. The nuts for

down bolts were not tightened down until the splices were riveted. Average time-interval between the actual lift from the truck and the dry bolting-up of the joint was 20 minutes. During the following the cross-frames were bolted to the horizontal limbs and the splices riveted. Concreting then proceeded and the vertical limbs were built to a depth of 6 feet. 1-inch bitumen-covered cork expansion-joints were then fixed to the back of the girder and bitumen-coated paper was applied to the sides. The abutment wall was then built up 3 feet. Throughout the construction, the encasement of the legs was kept 3 feet ahead of the abutment face.

During the concreting of the decking slab, levels were taken at the ends of the girders. The maximum deflexion on the intermediate girders was $\frac{3}{16}$ inch.

Traffic was diverted over the new bridge on the 2nd November, 1938, having been allowed for the decking concrete to mature. Demolition started immediately on the remainder of the old bridge. It is interesting to note that the old brick retaining walls which were battered at 1 in 8 and found to be 2 feet thick at the base and retained a depth of 16 feet of soil. The abutments of the skew arch consisted of a series of brick piers (founded on a 2-feet-deep raft of lime concrete) parallel to the skew face, and supported a series of small arches spanning between them at the springing level of the main arch. Two brick-courses corbelled out half-way down the inside of the walls for no apparent reason. Demolition of the main arch was carried out during a week-end occupation of the road loop, and obviated the necessity for centering and lagging as originally intended.

The underside of the girders and deck slab was finally sprayed with two coats of "Callendure" black bitumen paint as a protection against engine blast. Tests carried out with this paint on 6-inch concrete showed that it would not peel off after being subjected to prolonged intensive steam blasts.

On the 30th June, 1938, the bridge was ready for normal traffic. The total of 13 months taken for the construction would have been appreciably reduced had it not been for the delay in obtaining the structural steelwork occasioned by the shortage. *Fig. 7* (facing p. 248) gives a view of the finished structure.

Bridge.

The entire south abutment and wing-walls were built in one operation, in order to maintain the normal canal traffic, it was possible to build only half of the north abutment. This, in turn, was governed by the size of the crane provided by the contractor. The type used was a $3\frac{1}{2}$ -ton electric crane converted to steam power, and it had a 70-foot jib. Its short radius limited its usefulness since the site did not adapt itself to the travel

type, and it was dismantled and re-erected in three different positions, stationary crane before the work was finally completed.

On the east half of the south abutment no difficulty was experienced since the cornbrash was found at the expected levels and the co of side-groove steel sheet-piling was supported on the canal side of the ground. For the west half there was no support from the ground and it was not possible to support or tie back the steel sheets facing the canal. Moreover, the rock shelved down to 196.50 O.D., which is more than 10 feet below water-level. The overlying ground for almost the full depth was running sand, and driving with a No. 7 McKiernan Terry hammer produced barely a foot of penetration into the rock brash. Further addition to these conditions was the surcharge of the crane on the embankment at the back of the dam which assisted in producing subsidence of the ground between it and the back steel piles, whilst excavation near the bottom was in progress. It was therefore decided to excavate and consolidate in sections of about 20-foot lengths, and to bulkhead these sections with light steel sheet-piling to prevent the continuous percolation of the sand into the working dam. Even with these precautions there was always the danger of a blow-out, and the possibility of the collapse of the dam between the period of preparing the foundation and placing concrete.

The original borings proved very misleading for the foundation of the north abutment. No cornbrash was found at the expected level. Subsequent borings inside the dam revealed a depth of 3 feet of fine sand and clay at 190.00 O.D. overlying what was thought to be rock. The ground to the full depth above the clay consisted of waterlogged sand. In driving steel cofferdam no indication was given of the subsoil conditions, since the piles were driven practically to refusal when about 13 feet below water-level. On excavating, however, to within 8 feet below water-level a blow-out occurred, and the piles in that vicinity, which previously had been driven to refusal, were topped and re-driven, and they continued to be driven comparatively easily for the next 3 feet. Several similar blow-outs occurred at other points, and it was decided to top and re-drive all the piles to refusal. As an additional safeguard, the 9-foot reinforced concrete sheet-piles which were available from the canal diversions were driven inside the dam in rows of three at 5-foot centres. These piles were driven with a No. 6 McKiernan Terry hammer to a set of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch on the last fifty blows. Because of the compacting of the sand, the penetration varied from $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet to 3 feet. During driving, a 3-foot head of water was maintained in the dam as a precautionary measure. When the bottom was cleaned up, 12 feet below water-level, it was quite firm and satisfactory.

Concreting proceeded to the level of the underside of the holding bolts. Welded-steel templates were fixed in position with the lower ends of the bolts and additional temporary wooden templates were nailed to the tops to hold them rigidly in position whilst concreting. After



RAILWAY BRIDGE AS COMPLETED.

Fig. 8.



to the underside of the baseplates, all the steel piles were extracted with the exception of the lower lengths around the north abutment and the piers.

A number of visits were made to the steelworks during the fabrication of the welded portals and the usual tests from samples of the welder's work were satisfactory. There was, however, a variation in the span of the frames, the minimum being $\frac{1}{4}$ inch greater than, and the maximum less than, the specified length of 40 feet 7 inches. On the site those frames were divided between both abutments to equalize the concrete cover over the faces of the legs and prevent straining at the cross-girder connections. Transportation of the steel frames from the railway station to the site was effected by means of an ordinary lorry specially adapted for the purpose.

Generally, the building of the superstructure was similar to that of the other bridge, with the exception of the support for the deck-slab. If the work had been supported from girders above the finished work, sufficient overhead clearance would have had to be allowed to permit of placing and screeding of the concrete. In this case the falsework was supported from $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch-diameter bolts connected to 1-foot 6-inch by 1-foot 6-inch by $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch steel plates resting directly on the extrados flanges of the portals. The plates were left in the slab and the holes, left after removing the shutters and withdrawing the bolts, were filled with 2 : 1 cement mortar.

By adopting this method all obstruction on top of the slab was avoided. The 1-in-27 gradient, and the skew and camber of the roadway, together with the different levels of the cross-girders, made the encasement and shuttering unusually complicated. At each intersection of main and cross-girder there were four different levels to the underside of the slab.

The east half of the bridge was opened to traffic on the 30th June, the west half being completed during the following month. A view of the completed structure is given in *Fig. 8*.

Diversion.

The reinforced-concrete sheet-piles which formed the wall of the coffer-dry dock were cast on the works and were driven with a $\frac{1}{2}$ -ton diesel-type rammer.

The subsoil conditions varied considerably and, where the ground was especially soft, this hammer gave good results. Where a gravelly subsoil was countered, driving was extremely difficult and a 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ -ton monkey was used for the automatic hammer. The drop of the hammer in both cases was 3 feet, and all the piles with the exception of about forty were driven to refusal.

On a 160-foot section of the south bank there was an outcrop of the chalk at water-level for a depth of 5 feet. Below this a hard solid

rock was struck, which, presumably, was the Forest Marble. Since driving was impossible, this section was supported by a mass concrete wall 6 feet 6 inches high, vertical on the face and battered on the back, varying in thickness from 1 foot 6 inches at the base to 10 inches at the top, tied back to concrete blocks at 8-foot centres by means of 1-inch-diameter steel bars encased in 6 inches of concrete. No back-shuttering was needed as the wall was well bonded back into the irregular stone face.

Where concrete piling could not be driven and the cost of a concrete wall was prohibitive, steel piling was substituted and tied back as before. The walls were capped with a 10-inch by 1-foot 10-inch reinforced-concrete curb projecting 10 inches above water-level.

The diversion, which varies in width from 20 feet to 32 feet 3 inches, was excavated by a dragline to a depth of 6 feet below water-level. Between the excavations a dam was formed by light steel sheet-piling at the junction with the existing canal. A 6-inch centrifugal pump, together with a small diaphragm pump, kept the diversion practically free from water. As previously mentioned, the subsoil conditions at the bottom of the canal varied from sand at the north end through clay and cornbrash to the centre to sand at the south end under the new bridge. It was originally intended to seal the bottom with puddle clay, but as an alternative was agreed to spread bags of concrete in the form of stretchers in the bottom with a slight overlap between successive bags. 3 days after this operation was completed, a 200-foot length of the diversion was pumped dry. No leakage was detected during the following 2 days either in the bottom or the sides, the subsoil water providing a 3-foot 6-inch head. The canal was then opened to traffic and part of the existing canal dragged to the required levels.

Formation and Roadworks.

Nearly 30,000 cubic yards of stone and gravel filling were brought to the site from local borrow pits and consolidated in 1-foot layers by lorries running over the work. Where the road crosses the old canal, however, a sheepsfoot roller was used for consolidation. So far, in view of the volume of heavy traffic, very little visible settlement has taken place. The roadworks were carried out by direct labour.

TESTS.

A large number of 6-inch concrete cubes were tested to destruction and Table I shows the average figures for the crushing strengths in tons per square inch.

The Building Research Station, Garston, on behalf of the Oxford County Council, tested, at the steelworks, two welded-steel portals 1

bridge. A complete description of the test is given by Messrs. J. J. Leeming and E. C. Redshaw¹.

TABLE I.

Grade.	7 days.	28 days.	3 months.
5 : 3 : 1	1,860	3,250	3,425
4 : 2 : 1	2,980	4,200	4,730
3 : 1½ : 1	3,675	5,290	5,620

It is interesting to note that the results of these tests show very close agreement with the values derived from theory for deflexion, outward movement, and stress. The knee was the only point where any appreciable differences were noted. The stress computation at the knee was originally based on the straight-bar theory. On recalculation, using the curved-bar theory, the deviation from the test results were considerably reduced.

COSTS.

The costs per square foot of opening were :

Railway bridge	£2·46
Canal bridge	£2·75

The higher unit cost of the latter was in a large measure due to the extra foundation work which was not originally anticipated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

The design and the works were carried out under the direction of Mr. T. Bennett, B.Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., County Surveyor, whom the Author wishes to thank for his permission to allow the publication of this Paper. The Author also wishes to thank Mr. J. J. Leeming, Engineering Assistant to Mr. Bennett, for permission to reproduce some of his photographs.

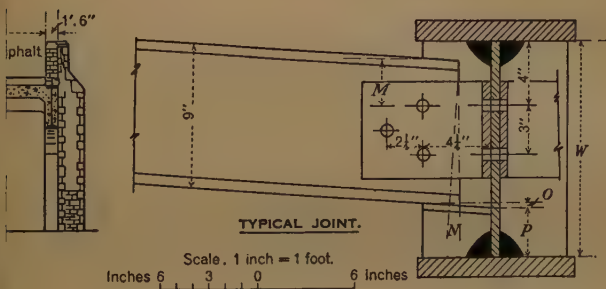
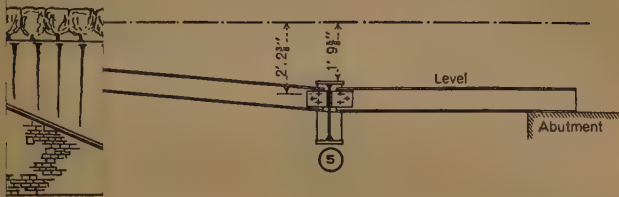
The Holborn Construction Company, Ltd., were the main contractors. The sub-contractors for the structural steelwork were the Fairfield Building and Engineering Company, Ltd. Mr. A. McColl acted as the contractors' resident agent. The Author wishes to thank the engineers of the Great Western Railway Company and the Oxford Canal Navigation Company for their helpful co-operation during the progress of the works.

¹ "The Testing of Two Portal Frame Girders." Journal I. Struct. E., vol. xvii, (February 1939).

The Author assisted in the design and the preparation of the drawings and also acted as resident engineer.

The Paper is accompanied by six sheets of drawings and eleven photographs, from some of which Plate 1, the Figures in the text, and the halftone page-plate have been prepared.

PLATE 1.
THE KIDLINGTON BRIDGES.



Joint	Dimensions.				
	M	N	O	P	W
A ₁	3"	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$-\frac{3}{16}$ "	$3\frac{11}{16}$ "	1' 1 1/2"
A ₂	3"	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$+\frac{3}{16}$ "	$3\frac{11}{16}$ "	1' 1 1/2"
B ₁	$2\frac{11}{16}$ "	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$-\frac{11}{32}$ "	$3\frac{31}{32}$ "	1' 1 1/2"
B ₂	$3\frac{3}{16}$ "	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$+\frac{11}{32}$ "	$10\frac{31}{32}$ "	1' 9 1/8"
C ₁	3"	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$+\frac{1}{32}$ "	$11\frac{59}{32}$ "	1' 9 1/8"
C ₂	3"	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$-\frac{1}{32}$ "	$3\frac{7}{32}$ "	1' 1 1/2"
D	3"	0	0	$11\frac{1}{2}$ "	1' 9 1/8"

1/8" expansion-joint



“Civil Engineering and Architecture.”

By HARRY STUART GOODHART-RENDEL, P.P.R.I.B.A.

WHEN I first used to read about architecture, the standard general history of the subject in English was that written by James Fergusson¹. At the beginning of this book came an attempt at distinguishing between architecture, civil engineering, and building, which even then did not seem to be successful. The distinction was boldly propounded, and was illustrated by a woodcut showing a row of warehouses, that developed gradually from extreme plainness on the left to considerable elaboration on the right². At definite points in the row Building was supposed to give way to Civil Engineering and Civil Engineering to Architecture.

Fergusson was not a very sensible man, and this woodcut of his has now only to be seen to be laughed at. The opinion it illustrated ought to seem equally comical, and yet I wish I could be sure there were not many people who still entertained it. The opinion was that architecture started when the designer of a building tried to make a building look nice. Decency from the engineer perhaps, but Beauty from the architect.

Now, beauty is bred in the bone, and cannot be applied like powder and lipstick. There was not much beauty in any of Fergusson's warehouses, but I remember thinking—and I feel sure I still should think—that the plain one with which he began deteriorated progressively as he boled about with it. Its first state was rather bad and its last state was worse. Nothing can be well built upon a faulty foundation; to adorn bad engineering is only to add insult to injury.

The adornment of good engineering is another matter. Architectural adornment of all kinds is out of fashion to-day, and most young architects are convinced nudists. Few of their productions would have been considered by Fergusson or his contemporaries to be architecture at all. The best of them seem to me beautiful, but with a puritan beauty insufficient to satisfy all the demands of civilized man. The demands of civilized man for something more are apt nowadays to be met with such things as the Tower bridge, or the screen wall to the railway at Victoria, or the Battersea power-station.

The Victoria screen is purely scenic, as a screen may legitimately be; but my other two examples display arbitrary ideas of design that do not arise from the nature of the structure. The ideas at Battersea have pleased the public generally, those in the Tower bridge have not. Whether they

¹ “The Illustrated Handbook of Architecture.” London, 1855.

² *Ibid.*, vol. i, p. xxvii.

please or displease, such architecture, if something better than powder and lipstick, is still a beauty-shop affair—shall we say an example of plastic surgery? Its face is its fortune, and if a fickle public should tire of its face it has nothing else to offer.

If the present war could lead to a complete re-union of civil engineering with architecture, it would be worth carrying on for that end alone. I think that it is bound to bring the two professions closer together, and much depends upon what use we make of that proximity. They have not long been separate; indeed, it was only the last century that split into two avocations what before had been but one. The schism has caused growth and evils, and I am inclined to see no prosperous future for either until it is healed.

Had Vauban been not one man, but an engineer with an architectural consultant or an architect with an engineering consultant, seventeenth-century France would almost certainly have got bad fortifications and barracks instead of good ones. Even in the eighteenth century you can find men equally at home in the designing of bridges and of churches: the excellent parish-church of Clapham is the work of a bridge-builder; and it is only because he lived in the nineteenth century that the great Telford showed himself at a disadvantage when a church came his way.

The separation of the professions might in itself be only a matter of convenience if it did not inevitably result—if it had not already resulted—in a separation of the things professed. Construction has tended to become increasingly unarchitectural and architecture to become increasingly unconstructional (despite the mysticism of the functionalists) in ways that spell doom to both. No educated man may ever yet have heard that architecture is the art of making buildings beautiful and engineering the art of making them stand up; but this favourite delusion of the vulgar will spread if architects and engineers take no steps to dispel it. Before they can do anything about it they must be quite sure that they clearly conceive their own proper functions. These in practice are indefinite and confused—let us try to establish them by reason.

Suppose that *A* the architect and *E* the engineer, having not yet fused their personalities in the diphthong *Æ*, are nevertheless collaborating with absolute equality in the design of a new city. They have before them all the necessary surveys and data and an adequate programme of requirements. Both may be assumed to have made a special study of town planning, which has obtained for them their commission. *A* takes a particular interest in circulation and the siting of civic buildings, *E* takes a particular interest in water-supply and subsoil, but each in discussing the special subject of the other proves that two heads are better than one.

All goes as merrily as a wedding bell until *A* in the exuberance of his heart proposes to hang the municipal offices over the car park on enormous cantilevers. Says *E*: "*Must* you do that?" *A* asks why not. *E* simply asks "*Why?*" *A* says it looks functional and all the best people

it abroad. *E* wants to know what is the matter with stanchions. *A* replies that the job will look cleaner without them, and with a touch of ditty adds that no doubt it would be much *easier* to do it with stanchions. "and much easier to pay for," retorts *E*. This troubles *A*, whose study of engineering has not been particularly directed towards economy. "Oh, well," he grumbles, "I suppose we must use stanchions if you tell me the other way is pointlessly expensive." "It's part of my job to tell you that," *E* says; and he is right.

Later on, however, *A* gets a little of his own back. General principles of lay-out have been amicably agreed, and the time has come to make a rough plan showing the principal streets with their traffic circulation. *E* has many more statistics in his head than *A* has, and feels that in this he ought to outshine him. Yet in the end the plan is chiefly *A*'s, *E* generously allowing that although many of the ideas in it are his own *A* has known better than he how to simplify them and knock them into shape. "Well," says *A*, "I spent most of my 5 years at school in learning how to plan—I can't expect a thing like planning to come by nature."

When, therefore, the moment arrives for designing the buildings *E* leaves *A* questions of general disposition and arrangement. But he ought to keep his eye very closely on *A* when the first sketch is in a state to be decided. If *A* is wise he will leave this sketch as indefinite and fluid as possible and hand it over to *E* for comment and criticism. If *E* knows his job it is very likely that he can suggest now some better structural skeleton than the one *A* has had in mind. This may involve a radical reconsideration of the plan as far as it has gone, but if that is not far *A* can settle down to it without regret. Had the plan gone further the happy atmosphere of collaboration between the partners would have soured to compromise. And compromise between engineering and architecture begets monsters wholly discreditable to both parents.

All through the later working-out of the designs *A* will hide nothing from *E* nor *E* from *A*, but they will keep up a continuous consultation, in order that the work of neither may ever have to be cut about to suit that of the other. If *A* is genial enough to allow any ornament, he will not fail to throw it in at the end, but will stir it into the pudding during the working. If *E* says that it spoils the taste *A* ought to be very attentive to criticism. Ornament is provided by *A* to please not only his brother architect but the whole non-architectural public, for which *E* is probably a very bad spokesman.

Now this collaboration between *A* and *E* is not only imaginary but is very far removed from such collaboration as there is between architects and engineers to-day. With the best will in the world, they are less apt to collaborate than to compromise, and, where the will is not the best, compromise quickly degenerates into mutual appeasement. I believe the cause of this to be simple. The young architect and the young engineer to-day are each extremely ignorant of what is the other one's job. The

young architect has learnt some elementary engineering, enough to prevent his requiring impossibilities, but he has seldom any large comprehension of the world in which his engineer brother lives and thinks. The young engineer has no better comprehension of the mental outlook of his brother the architect. In saying this I speak only of Great Britain where the mutual isolation is much greater than is common elsewhere. The effort appears to me a challenge that must be met by those in both professions who are in charge of education.

The eventual combination of the two professions—or, as I should call it, the re-uniting of the sundered profession—may not yet be in sight. Many may despair of it as impracticable, some may even think it undesirable. Nobody, however, can doubt the desirability of establishing the closest possible sympathy between the two professions as they stand. If curricula can be compared and educational methods debated with a view to closing the dangerously widening breach, a great thing may be done for the nation, an achievement consummated that would be almost worth a war.

ABSTRACTS OF THE CURRENT TECHNICAL LITERATURE OF ENGINEERING AND APPLIED SCIENCE.

ENGINEERING CONSTRUCTION.

Failure by Torsion. (**Rev. Univ. Min.*, 8th series, 15, 501-511; Oct. 1939).—The Author discusses failures by torsion which are not accounted for by the hitherto adopted methods of calculation. Considerations arising from ordinary torsion stresses are already well understood, but the Author deals with the problem of failure by the torsion stresses arising out of simple longitudinal compression. An exhaustive mathematical analysis is presented.

The Carrying Capacity of Piles. J. L. KERISEL (**Ann. Ponts Chauss.*, 1939-i, 579-633; May 1939).—The Author treats the subject in great detail, commencing with a consideration of the static type of formulas from the theoretical standpoint of the formulas of Bénabencq and Dörr. The ensuing relationships between the resistance of piles and the characteristics of the material penetrated were investigated by means of circular-section metal piles driven into Nemours sand, which has an angle of repose varying between 20 degrees and 47 degrees. The experimental data are tabulated in a comprehensive manner. The effects of driving piles are illustrated by photographs of model-experiments showing the distortions of material which is coloured in alternate layers. The Author also discusses the percussion formulas, which concern the driving of piles. He describes briefly experiments conducted in Malesherbes sand, and compares the theories expounded by Hiley, Crandell and Sprenger, and Hollandais. He points out that the experiments described were all carried out in a non-coherent powdery material, and summarizes the practical considerations arising from the characteristics of coherent material.

NOTES.—An asterisk prefixed to a reference, thus **Rev. Univ. Min.*, denotes that the article is illustrated.

The abbreviated titles of periodicals are those used in the "World List of Scientific Periodicals" (Oxford 1934).

Rapidly-Constructed Driven Cylinder Foundations. (**Engng. News Rec.*, 123, 541-543 ; 26 Oct. 1939.)—To support the main piers of three lift bridges under construction over the Cuyahoga river at Cleveland, Ohio 30-inch steel cylinders are being driven 150 feet through soft ground to rock, being socketed into the rock and filled with concrete. For the heaviest loading (625 tons) a steel H-beam is set in the cylinder before concreting, being centered at the top and hung free to ensure its verticality. Each pier foundation comprises six cylinders supplemented by steel batter piles and a steel sheet-pile enclosure. A complete pier foundation was constructed in 4 weeks.

Tests on Concrete Masonry Units using Tamping and Vibrating Moulding Methods. K. F. WENDT and P. M. WOODWORTH (**J. Amer. Concrete Inst.*, 11, 121-163 ; Nov. 1939).—The Authors present the results of a comprehensive series of tests on concrete masonry units made with seven different aggregates: cinders, limestone, sand, gravel, and three proprietary aggregates. Comparative data indicate the effects of two different types of moulding—vibration and tamping—upon the compressive strength, absorption, capillarity, specific weight, durability, volume-change, and thermal expansion for each aggregate. Similar data are presented for variations in cement-content for each aggregate, and fourteen conclusions are drawn.

The Effect of the Addition of Finely-ground Inert Material to Concrete. Sir ROBERT CHAPMAN and P. E. OLSEN (**Trans. Instn. Engn. Aust.*, 11, 263-278 ; Aug. 1939).—In view of experience gained in the construction of the Mount Bold dam, South Australia, tests were made to determine under what conditions the addition of fine inert material to mortar or concrete might be advantageous. The material considered consisted of powder passing through a 200-mesh sieve. The investigation included tensile and compression tests on cement and filler pastes, and the density and consistency of the mixtures; for contraction, consistency, porosity, resistance to abrasion, and contraction of mortar; and tests on concrete cylinders. The Authors conclude that fine inert material added to concrete, in the form of finely-ground quartzite or hard limestone rock, is not detrimental to the strength of the concrete, so long as its quantity does not exceed that of cement, whilst its use results in improved workability, higher strength, and greater economy. In both mortar and concrete, however, the addition of similar fine material to the sand increases the contraction. In all cases the addition of finely-divided clay results in excessive contraction.

The Ladybower Reservoir, Derbyshire. (**Engineer, Lond.*, 160, 440-442 ; 3 Nov. 1939.)—The reservoir, under construction for the Derwent Valley Water Board, will contain 5,000 to 6,000 million gallons of water.

the dam, an earthwork embankment with a clay-puddle core, is about 250 feet in length, with a maximum height of more than 140 feet above the river-bed. Details are given of the constructional work, of the discharge tunnels, and of the overflows, the design of which formed the subject of model-tests at Manchester University. The reservoir is to be completed in 1941.

The Construction of Underground Petrol-Tanks. (**Ossature Métall.*, 432-435; Oct. 1939.)—Underground tanks for the storage of petrol present the advantages of protection against aerial attack, diminution of losses by evaporation, and protection against corrosion. The Author discusses the design of completely and semi-buried tanks, the choice of steel and of the metallic reinforcement, and the constructional details and testing of tanks of the "auto-stable" and "hydraulic-compensation" types.

Fatigue Tests of Connexion-Angles. W. M. WILSON and J. V. COMBE (**Bull. Univ. Illinois Eng. Expt. Stn. No. 317*, 18 pp.; 3 Oct. 1939).—The object of the tests was to determine the magnitude of the deflexion at which the outstanding leg of a connexion-angle can be subjected many times without failure of either the angle or the rivets. Nine similar specimens were tested, each consisting of two central plates, four filler plates, four angles, and a spacer. The central plates had $1\frac{1}{8}$ -inch holes at the ends for bolting the specimen to the pulling-heads of 200,000-lb. fatigue-testing machines, whereby an axial force was developed parallel to the longitudinal axis of the stringer, ranging from zero to a maximum tension, thereby subjecting the outstanding legs of the connexion-angles to a moment that varied from zero to a maximum. The results are tabulated and plotted in curves.

Symmetrical Loading on Continuous Beams. E. SHEPLEY (**Concrete Constr. Engng.*, 34, 548-556; Oct. 1939).—An analytical method is described which gives a rapid solution for the support moments of a continuous beam when all spans are prismatic (uniform cross-section from support to support) and all loadings are symmetrical. Common types of symmetrical loading are tabulated, and examples are worked for beams having various "degrees of fixity."

Square Sections of Reinforced Concrete under Thrust and Non-Symmetrical Bending. PAUL ANDERSEN (**Bull. Univ. Minnesota Eng. Expt. Stn. No. 14*; 19 pp.; 12 Aug. 1939).—The Author presents a rational analysis of square concrete sections subject to the action of a direct force and four bending moments. A number of diagrams are reproduced, which will enable the structural designer to determine the stresses for the most common cases without the necessity for solution of equations. The results

are given of tests of twenty-four square sections of reinforced concrete loaded eccentrically in two directions. The Author concludes that the formulas developed for non-symmetrical bending represent the actual stress-distribution with an accuracy equal to that of the conventional analysis of reinforced concrete.

Stockport's Air-raid Shelters. (**Surveyor, Lond.*, 96, 423-424; 17 Nov. 1939).—The shelters consist of $\frac{1}{2}$ mile of tunnel, 30-40 feet below ground-level, 7 feet wide by 7 feet high, cut out of the red sandstone rock. The total length of the front main tunnel being about 800 feet. There are two main tunnels, which are connected with nineteen galleries, each 30-40 feet in length. The shelters will accommodate at least 3,850 persons. The entrances are in main shopping streets. All precautions were taken to prevent any effects due to blast, whilst the entrances were strengthened by reinforced-concrete roofs. The shelters are lighted from the main supply, with stand-by emergency accumulator lamps. Ventilation is effected by a very strong natural air-current.

The Summit Avenue Bridge. C. W. DUNHAM (**Civ. Engng., N.Y.*, 9, 639-642; Nov. 1939).—The bridge, forming part of the New Jersey approach to the Lincoln vehicular tunnel, is a two-span cellular reinforced concrete continuous structure, with clear spans of 35 feet 10 inches. Spandrels about 5 feet deep faced with sawn granite, abutments faced with granite ashlar masonry, and 2-foot concrete parapets. Four different designs were considered before the cellular form of structure was adopted. These are discussed and the construction is described in detail.

Raising a Railway-Station Footbridge under Traffic Conditions. (**Rly. Age, Chicago*, 107, 615-618; 21 Oct. 1939).—The passenger-station at Harrisburg, Pa., includes eight through tracks covered by two roof structures of trusses of 90 feet span, spaced 20 feet apart centre to centre and supported on three lines of steel columns, the centre line of which takes the reaction from the trusses on both sides. A footbridge extends across the eight tracks and five platforms, with stairways to each platform from each side of the bridge. By disconnecting a section of the station structure over the bridge and raising it with the bridge, by the aid of graduated scales or gauges at the lifting jacks, the heightening operation necessitated to obtain the additional clearance required for electrification of the railway was accomplished successfully without interruption to the use of the bridge. The operations are described in detail.

Coast and River Conservancy. ERNEST LATHAM (**Engineering*, 148, 571-575; 24 Nov. 1939).—The natural defence of the English coast line depends primarily upon the movement of shingle and sand or other beach material, which is supplied by falls from crumbling cliffs of various

rmations. Where there is a coast-line of hard, igneous rock the question of coast erosion hardly arises, and the parts of the coast which require artificial aid are therefore reduced to the crumbling cliff sections and the low-lying coastal lands or marshes below high-water level. The Author discusses various portions of the English coasts, and the directions of movement of the beach material. He describes the defences at different points, and emphasizes the danger of excessive removal of beach ballast and the necessity for co-ordination of coast-defence and river-conservancy works as part of a comprehensive scheme.

The Calculation of Infiltration. J. MANDEL (**Ann. Ponts Chauss.*, 1939-ii, 57-110; July 1939).—The Author states that a knowledge of the flow by infiltration in soils is of considerable importance in various practical problems, such as the supply to wells or springs, the prediction of seepage, and its prevention by methods of staunching. He demonstrates that infiltration problems present a perfect analogy, from the mathematical point of view, with other classic physical problems which have been thoroughly investigated. This enables him to obtain, by simple transpositions, the solutions of several problems of infiltration.

The River Liffey Hydro-Electric Scheme. V. D. HARTY (**Concrete Constr. Engng.*, 34, 581-588; Nov. 1939).—The purpose of the works described is to supply additional electricity to the national system and to provide a further water-supply for greater Dublin. The chief power-plant and dam are at Pollaphuca, whilst a subsidiary power-plant and dam are being built $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile downstream. The Pollaphuca dam, of the straight gravity type, has a maximum height of 104 feet and a total length of 225 feet, and will impound 5,300 million cubic feet of water. Descriptions are given of the constructional work, the intake, the pressure-gallery, and the surge-tank. The power-station houses two vertical-spindle turbines, direct-coupled to two 15,000-kilowatt generators. The subsidiary station, at Golden Falls, contains one vertical-spindle Francis turbine, direct-coupled to a 4,000-kilowatt generator.

MECHANICAL ENGINEERING.

Circulating Water, Heat-Transmission, and Heat-Discharge in Condensing Plants. R. H. PARSONS (**Engineer, Lond.*, 168, 499-501; 7 Nov. 1939).—The Author emphasizes the lack of published information in regard to the quantity of water which passes through the condensers in power-station operation. Test data from a modern station indicate that about 52 B.Th.U. were carried away by the circulating water for every 100 B.Th.U. liberated in the furnaces. He presents nomograms by means of which the quantity of circulating water passing through any condenser

at any time can be immediately ascertained, provided that the requisite temperature-readings and the particulars of the condenser concerned are available.

The Theory of Flexible Mountings for Internal-Combustion Engines. C. E. ILFFE (**J. Instn. Auto. Engrs.*, 8, 77-107; Dec. 1939).—The Author discusses vibratory disturbances in internal-combustion engines, including gas-pressure effects and inertia effects, in single-cylinder and multi-cylinder engines. He considers in detail systems with one degree and with several degrees of freedom. He gives a formula expressing the stiffness, in pounds per foot, of rubber mountings, and discusses the problem of vehicle-engine stability on the road. A worked example is given for a four-cylinder engine.

Development of the Kadenacy Principle. (**Oil Engine*, 7, 214-217 Nov. 1939).—The governing principle of Kadenacy's work is that, if high pressure gases are suddenly released from a vessel by the rapid opening of a suitable orifice, the discharge is not in the form of a steady flow, but is of the nature of an explosion; this must be followed by an actual, or a virtual drop in pressure in the vessel, and leads to the return of the discharged gases towards the vessel. These reactions, occurring in very short intervals of time, give rise to mass movements at high velocity. Particulars are given of the improvements in output and efficiency obtained with engines in which the exhaust arrangements have been modified to suit the principle.

The Ottawa Street Power-Station, Lansing, Michigan. (**Power*, 88, 588-592; Oct. 1939).—In this municipal power-station for electricity- and steam-supply the tower housing the boiler plant is of about the height of a sixteen-story building, and no chimney is visible. The equipment includes two 225,000-lb.-per-hour steam-generating units, with pulverized-fuel firing, superheat-control at operating conditions of 850 lb. per square inch and 900° F., six-stage feed-water heating, air-preheaters and electrostatic precipitators, hydraulic-coupling speed-control of auxiliaries, a triple boiler-feed pump for light loads, and two-stage by-product plant with evaporators to supply district heating steam. A feature of the 25,000-kilowatt turbine-generator is its ability to carry overload up to 31,250 kilowatts at 0.8 power-factor by increasing hydrogen-pressure in the generator-casing from the normal few ounces to about 9 lb. gauge-pressure.

A 1,500-R.P.M., 200-Kilowatt "House" Diesel Generating Set. (**Oil Engine*, 7, 176-177; Oct. 1939).—A remotely-controlled emergency diesel generating set has been installed recently in the power-station of the Reading Corporation, to provide energy when the current from the "grid" is cut off and the stand-by steam generating plant is not in operation.

the power unit is an eight-cylinder engine with two banks of cylinders at 60 degrees. The bore is 7 inches, the stroke $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches, and the 12-hp rating at 1,500 revolutions per minute is 330 brake-horsepower.

Vertical-Shaft Generators: Some Problems and their Solutions. R. SILLS (**Elect. Engng., N.Y.*, 58, 469-479; Nov. 1939).—The Author discusses the energy-flow in a hydro-electric system, weight and its support in a vertical generator, rotor construction, magnetic forces, natural frequencies of vibration, thermal-expansion forces, the effect of the mechanical design upon other characteristics of a machine, cooling, and the problem of keeping oil out of the windings. Typical designs are illustrated.

The Selection and Application of High-Temperature Piping Material. H. KRIEG and G. SONDERMAN (**J. Amer. Weld. Soc.*, 18, 697-701; Nov. 1939).—The advent of steam-pressures ranging up to 2,500 lb. per square inch, and of temperatures up to 950° F., has rendered the selection and application of piping material a major problem in power-plant design. The Authors discuss in detail the requirements for satisfactory high-temperature piping, which include a low creep-rate to permit the use of a thin-wall tube, a stable material resistant to internal change of structure and to external oxidation and corrosion, and good workability of the material, especially in welding and in making bends during fabrication. They also discuss the welding of such piping to produce the requisite safety joint-strength, structurally as well as metallurgically, and enumerate the specifications adopted for pipe-joints at the Windsor plant of the Ohio Power Company, to indicate the exacting requirements under which the welding was performed.

Effects of Temperature upon the Mechanical Performance of Rotating Electrical Machinery. C. LYNN (*Elect. Engng., N.Y.*, 58, *Trans.*, 514-517; Oct. 1939).—The Author discusses in detail the effects of temperature upon insulating parts of alternating- and direct-current machines, the influence of heat upon commutator copper, solder, carbon and carbon-graphite brushes, and oil-lubricated sleeve-bearings, and considers problems of expansion and contraction due to temperature-variations.

Deformation of Turbo-Alternator Rotor Windings due to Temperature-Rise. G. A. JUHLIN (**J. Instn. Elect. Engrs.*, 85, 544-552; Oct. 1939).—The Author discusses the effect of temperature upon the degree of deformation of different conductors throughout the depths of the slots, and demonstrates that a comparatively small increase in temperature-rise may cause the deformation to become serious. He presents a graphical method for determining the effect of a given temperature-rise, and discusses the effects of various methods of applying excitation to a machine.

Quick-Acting Release Latches for Circuit-Breakers. C. THUMM (**Mech. Engng.*, N.Y., 61, 807-812; Nov. 1939).—The Author discusses the principles upon which design is based and classifies the four types into which latches can generally be divided as follows: (a) dead centre (2) over centre toggle; (3) over centre surface; and (4) magnet. Illustrations of each type are reproduced, and force-analyses of these under various conditions are presented. An evaluation of the performance characteristics of the various types is given in a Table.

An American Diesel-Hydraulic Shunting Locomotive. (**Rly. Mech. Engr.*, 113, 385-386, 395; Oct. 1939).—The locomotive is of the 0-6-6 type with jackshaft drive. A six-cylinder four-stroke-cycle solid-injection diesel engine is fitted, rated at 400 brake-horsepower at 900 revolutions per minute, and drives through a hydraulic torque-converter, a two-speed gear-box, and a reversing gear-box, through which runs the jackshaft. Constant engine-output for a given throttle-setting is converted automatically into the varying combinations of locomotive speed and driving wheel torque, by means of the hydraulic torque-converter, depending on the load on the locomotive. On test the locomotive started, accelerated, stalled, restarted, and held, a load of 300 tons on a gradient of 1 in 20.

The 130-tonne Crane of the French National Railways. BREAU (**Rev. Gén. Chem.-de-Fer*, 58 (ii), 221-227; 1 Oct. 1939).—The new crane delivered at the end of 1938, was designed to lift 130 tonnes at a radius of 6.25 metres (20.5 feet) and 90 tonnes at a radius of 9.55 metres (32.4 feet), the weight of the crane being distributed so as to avoid all risk of dangerous bending stresses: pivoting supports are therefore fitted, which are closed during travelling and opened when heavy loads have to be lifted. The crane is carried on two four-axle bogies, each 4.5 metres (14.76 feet) in length, and 4.5 metres apart between the inner axles. The counterweight is carried on a separate wagon.

Rolling-Stock Bearings and Lubrication Problems. R. C. CASPER (**J. Instn. Loco. Engrs.*, 29, 708-766; Sept.-Oct. 1939).—The Author points out that problems of wear and heating require separate consideration although they are generally allied in practice. The importance of the following points is emphasized: protection from contamination; regular and continuous feed of lubricant; characteristics of lubricant; and relation of bearing metals and lubricants to bearing pressures and speed. He deals mainly with the steps taken to overcome the hot-axlebox problem on Indian locomotives.

The Control of Structures welded by the Oxy-Acetylene Process. E. HENRION (**Ann. Assoc. Ing. Gand.*, 29, 413-464; 1939).—The Author emphasizes the necessity for a strict control not only of the operation

ding, but also of the welded structure as a whole. He discusses in detail the bases of a preventive control, with the object of avoiding any imperfection in the weld, and deals successively with the precautions to be exercised before, during, and after the welding operations. He considers the application of autogenous welding by the oxy-acetylene flame as a process of assembly by localized fusion.

The Arc-Welding and Gas-Cutting of High-Tensile Low-Alloy Structural Steels. T. B. WILKINSON and H. O'NEILL (**J. & Proc. Instn. Mech. Engrs.*, 141, 497-512; Oct. 1939).—The Authors present data in regard to the composition and test values of typical high-tensile steels, and also the results of tests on metallic-arc-welded joints, and of laboratory tests made to determine the weldability of steel plate. They conclude that it is desirable to limit the carbon-content of the steel to 0.2 per cent., and that for single-run fillets the use of a relatively low welding-speed (6 inches per minute), with a fillet-size of not less than half the thickness of the plate, yields the best results. They state that the cutting of these steels by gas tends to produce cut edges having hard surfaces of reduced ductility.

Welding in the Manufacture of Valves for High Pressures and Temperatures. W. F. CRAWFORD and L. H. CARR (**J. Amer. Weld. Soc.*, 713-722; Nov. 1939).—The Authors state that since the introduction of the electric-arc covered electrode and the development of oxy-acetylene hard surfacing processes, welding has played an important part in improving the design of many types of valves for widely-different kinds of service. Numerous examples of these are illustrated, and the more widely used valve materials are tabulated, with their analyses and minimum physical properties.

Welding of Rails on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. S. M. BASAN (**Quarterly Tech. Bull., Rly. Board of India*, 5, 3-7; Oct. 1939).—Particulars are given of the welding process and equipment, and of the test; the work represents the first application of welding to track in India.

Welding Tungsten Steels. W. SPRARAGEN and G. E. CLAUSSEN (*J. Amer. Weld. Soc.*, 18 (*Weld. Research Suppl.*), 430-436; Nov. 1939).—The Authors present a review of the literature, up to 1 July, 1937, covering the welding of plain tungsten steel, tungsten high-speed steel, low-chromium tungsten steels, and nickel-tungsten-chromium steels. A bibliography containing eighty-one references is appended.

A New Temperature-Entropy Chart for Dry Air. J. R. FINNIECOME (*Mech. World*, 106, 455; 17 Nov. 1939).—The chart reproduced has been

prepared for turbo-blowers, turbo-compressors, superchargers, boosters and air-turbines, and for reciprocating compressors. The pressures range from 8 lb. to 300 lb. per square inch absolute, and the temperatures from zero to 340° F. The mean specific heat at a constant pressure is taken as 0.241, and the gas-constant as 53.30; these values, when referred to metric units, agree with those generally accepted on the Continent, and with the "Report on Tabulating the Results of Heat-Engine Trials (1927)" published by The Institution.

MINING ENGINEERING.

Measurements of Pressures on Underground Rock Columns (*Rept. Infmn. U.S. Bur. Min., No. 3470, 8-9; Sept. 1939*).—With the aid of a new technique for applying the sonic method of determining the elastic constants of rocks, the modulus of elasticity of thirty-three rock specimens, including granite, limestone, marble, and sandstone, were determined within an accuracy of 1 per cent. It is concluded that wave velocity in these rocks increases rapidly with pressure to about one-fourth to one-half of the crushing strength, after which it asymptotically approaches a maximum. It was found that some rocks that have been subject to large pressures (about 50 per cent. of the breaking strength), receive a permanent set that appreciably lowers the velocity of sound, and hence reduces Young's modulus. Measurements of the velocity of sound in mine-pillars under various loads were made by means of geophones.

Investigations on the Behaviour of Steel Support at the Coal-Face J. WEISSNER (**Glückauf, 75, 829-836; 841-847; 14 and 21 Oct., 1939*).—Experiments were carried out to determine the most effective method of using steel props at the coal-face in order to control the ground-pressure arising as a result of excavation. The reciprocal reactions between the strata and the steel support were observed in separate areas of the same mine employing different systems of longwall working. The results are plotted in curves, which serve as the basis for the discussion of possible means of improving the work performed by steel props.

Pillar Extraction in Witbank Coal-Mines, Transvaal. (**S. Afr. Mining & Engng. J., 50, 215-216; 259-261; 21 and 28 Oct., 1939*).—A system of caving-in the surface of the ground has been developed by the Transvaal and Delagoa Bay collieries to meet the conditions peculiar to the Witbank coalfields, wherein the deepest level at which mining is carried on is 1,000 feet. The system is based upon the assumption that if crushed coal from either pillars or roof could be buried under a compact fall, whether of rock or of soil, and practically all air were excluded from contact with the

ushed coal, it would not ignite. A detailed description of the seams and the application of the method is given, and its advantages are enumerated.

Mechanical Loading at the Union Pacific Coal-Mine, Wyoming. A. NOLPH (**Coal Age*, 44 (11), 39-41; Nov. 1939).—The mine produces about 3 million tons of coal per annum, all of which is now loaded mechanically, the total number of appliances, including scrapers, shaking conveyors, tub loaders, mobile loaders, and drag conveyors, amounting to 188. The Author describes the development of the system and the rules enforced for maintenance of the equipment, and gives the costs for labour and materials.

Mine Ventilation Research. G. E. McELROY (*Rept. Infmn. U.S. Bur. Min.*, No. 3470, 23-24; Sept. 1939).—New data on pressure-losses at changes in area in airways are analysed and correlated with similar data previously published. A new graphical method of determining natural draught effect upon mine ventilation systems is described. Experiments have been undertaken in the testing adit to determine the most effective shape and size of fan-pipe discharge for mine and tunnel ventilation. Preliminary analyses of the results indicate that the velocity-distribution follows a definite law and that the maximum velocity at any distance from the discharge can be predicted in terms of the average velocity and area of discharge; the shape has little effect upon velocity-distribution; the expanding discharge ends of flexible material (canvas pipe) are not practical because the change of velocity develops a negative pressure at the rear of the expansion-piece, causing collapse.

The Underground Fire at the Consolidation Colliery in 1938. F. LUYKEN (**Glückauf*, 75, 761-768; 9 Sept. 1939).—The Author describes a mine fire which extended to a large part of the workings of a mine in Germany, and discusses the results obtained with the various expedients resorted to in attempts to control the fire. Liberal use was made of carbon dioxide in solid, liquid, and gaseous form, as well as of nitrogen gas when supplies of carbon dioxide failed. It was found that when breathing apparatus had to be used for long periods the provision of spare apparatus at points indicated by a red light inspired the men with a feeling of confidence, as well as contributing to the saving of lives. Exceptional difficulty was encountered in the detection of methane in the presence of carbon dioxide, and only laboratory results could be relied upon. Owing to the immediate action required in the initial stage of the fire, stoppings were sometimes built without the necessary care, or in wrong places. Consequently, higher officers of the mine staff were placed in charge of this work, acting on instructions in writing, when possible, accompanied by sketches.

An Investigation into the Permissible Load-Changing Capacity of Steel Wire Ropes for Hoisting, with Special Reference to Deep-Lead Winding on the Witwatersrand Gold-Fields. J. J. P. DOLAN and W. G. JACKSON (**J. S. Afr. Instn. Engrs.*, 38, 86-136; Nov. 1939).—The objects of the investigation were to determine the stresses to which winding-rope is subjected during winding operations, and the effects of such stressing; to analyse test data from the Government mechanical laboratory; to examine practice in other mining centres; and to analyse the results of investigations made in Europe and America. The very detailed results are presented in Tables and curves; the bulk of the information was that gathered from experience on the Witwatersrand. The Authors present eighteen conclusions and make the following recommendations: the capacity-factor method of determining rope breaking load should be used; a discard capacity factor of 8.5 should be adopted for rock, persons, and material without differentiation; a percentage reduction in rope-strength, if stipulated, should not exceed 10 per cent.; and graphic load-extension diagrams should be supplied with each test piece, the proof resilience value of these being compared by the mining engineer to determine the probable life of the rope. Revisions to the Mines and Works Regulations dealing with the choice and loading of ropes are also suggested.

Practical Problems in Pit Headgears. (**Colliery Guard.*, 159, 63-65; 3 Nov. 1939).—The article deals with the design of pit headgears and the difficulties arising from the installation of machinery in which efficiency has been sacrificed for the sake of initial economy. The size of rope drum is dealt with and a device for correcting severe rope angling, due to drum being of insufficient diameter, is described in detail. The article also shows the various steps in design of A- or H-framed headgears which these are to be constructed and put into commission without a long stoppage of pit working.

Pumping Against a 3,304-Foot Head in a Single Lift. E. J. SLACK (**Engng. & Min. J.*, 140 (10), 29-31; Oct. 1939).—In July 1937 an air-conditioning plant was installed at the 3,600-foot level of the Magway copper-mine, Superior, Arizona, the return condenser water being returned from the mine by the existing pumping system. The desirability of a new pumping system became apparent, and two new pumps have been installed near No. 8 shaft, the main exhaust ventilating shaft for the west section of the mine. These are 6½-inch by 24-inch, centre-packed duplex double-acting horizon pumps, each of 600-gallons-per-minute capacity, designed for 3,465 feet (1,500 lb.) head. They are connected to two 600-horsepower 2,200-volt, three-phase 25-cycle motors, running at 485 revolutions per minute, and fitted with flywheel and flexible coupling through herringbone gear reduction-gear driving the pumps at 48.5 revolutions per minute.

The Mineralogy and Treatment of Auriferous Rocks of the Black Reef Series from the New Machavie Mine, South Africa. J. J. FRANKEL (*J. Chem. Met. Min. Soc. S. Afr.*, 40, 115-126; Sept. 1939).—The Black Reef series contains carbonaceous material which affects gold extraction by cyaniding. The Author's description is confined to data not previously published, from the metallurgical rather than the mineralogical point of view. His experiments, which are described in detail, lead him to conclude that the treatment should consist of grinding and removal of free gold and fine pyrite on corduroy tables, followed by flotation, fine grinding, and cyanidation of the flotation concentrates.

Determining the Particle-Sizes of Dust-Separator Products by means of a new Photo-electric Method. K. GÖSELE (*Forschung Ing. Wes.*, 10, 235-245; Sept.-Oct. 1939).—The method described enables the particle-size of the dust present to be directly determined in the dust-carrying air itself. The basic principle of the method is to determine photo-electrically the subsidence of the dust-particles in an enclosed air-space. The dust density is determined by directing a ray of light at right angles through the air and measuring the so-called Tyndall light, laterally dispersed by the dust-particles. The particle size-distribution of the dust is determined from the photo-electric values by a simple method of calculation. The Author states that the results observed agree closely with those found by microscopical analysis of the subsided dust.

Investigations of Electrical Equipment, Safety-Lamps, and Gas-detectors for Safety. L. C. ILSLEY (*Infmn. Circ. U.S. Bur. Min.*, No. 7068; 13 pp.; Sept. 1939).—An account is given of the tests to which the following apparatus is subjected in conformity with the requirements of the U.S. Bureau of Mines "Schedules": explosion-proof mine equipment; permissible electric cap-lamps; flame safety-lamps; portable methane-detectors; permissible telephones and signalling devices; electric mine-lamps other than cap-lamps; single-shot blasting-units; and multiple-shot blasting-units.

An Electrified Colliery. (*Elect. Rev.*, 125, 695-698; 1 Dec. 1939.)—Four seams are worked at the Wern Tarw colliery, South Wales, two of which are won from a pair of vertical shafts and the others from inclines driven from the surface. Detailed descriptions are given of the electrical installations for main and subsidiary haulage, for pumping, for coal-washing, and for surface transport. The power-consumption amounts to about 200,000 kilowatt-hours per month. The supply is taken from the 13-kilovolt line of the South Wales Power Company, and is transformed down to 3,300 volts, being further reduced to 550 volts for the smaller machines.

Ore Reserves. J. H. FENNELL (**Bull. Instn. Min. Metall.*, 1939, 422, 52 pp.; 9 Nov. 1939).—The Author observes that the total extractable ore in a metalliferous deposit may be defined as all the ore within the boundaries of the deposit which can be reached by development and extracted at a profit. The estimation of proved ore and prospective ore should be kept separate, but this causes difficulty, as the prospective ore is directly related to the exposed ore and the quantities of prospective ore estimated are largely dependent upon the quantities of ore that have been developed. The Author treats the two classes of ore together. He discusses the bases of ore estimation and the computation of ore reserves and presents operating results obtained at various American mines. In two Appendixes the results of tonnage calculations by the longitudinal area method and the cross-section method are tabulated, and the calculations for the mean assays of three series of widths, and assays resulting from the sampling of development openings in a gold-mine, are recorded.

NOTE.—The Institution as a body is not responsible either for the statements made, or for the opinions expressed, in the Papers and Abstracts published.

NOTE.—Pages [1] to [8] can be omitted when the Journal is bound in
volume form.

NOTICES

No. 3, 1939—40

JANUARY, 1940.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

MEETINGS, SESSION 1939—40.

ORDINARY MEETINGS.

Tuesday, 23 January, at 1.25 p.m.—Ballot for the election of new members.

Tuesday, 20 February.—Ballot for the election of new members, followed by an Informal Meeting. The time will be given in the February Journal.

INFORMAL MEETINGS.

An Informal Meeting will be held at 1.30 p.m. on Tuesday, 23 January. Light refreshments will be provided before the Meeting.

Subject.	Introducer.	Chairman.
Some Aspects of Engineering Civil Defence Works."	T. Peirson Frank, Member of Council.	Sir Clement D. M. Hindley, President.

A brief synopsis of the Introductory remarks may be obtained upon application to the Secretary.

An Informal Meeting will be held on Tuesday, 20 February. Details will be given in the February Journal.

Further meetings, as arranged, will be announced in the Journal.

GENERAL ANNOUNCEMENTS.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

Members and Students are reminded that subscriptions for 1940 were due on the 1st January, 1940. The present subscription rates are follows:—

	CLASS A. (London Area.)			CLASS B. (Elsewhere in British Isles.)			CLASS C. (Abroad.)		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Members	6	6	0	4	4	0	3	13	6
„ (retired)	3	13	6	2	12	6	2	12	6
Associate Members	3	13	6	2	12	6	2	12	6
„ „ (retired).	2	12	6	2	2	0	2	2	0
Associates	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0
Students	2	0	0	1	10	0	1	10	0

The attention of members is drawn to the fact that any contribution to the Benevolent Fund may be included in the cheque drawn in payment of the Institution subscription.

THE JOURNAL.

The remaining publication dates of the Journal for Session 1939-40 are the 15th February, March, April, June, and October, 1940.

READING ROOMS AND LIBRARY.

The Reading Rooms and Library are open during normal office hours and daylight. An air-raid shelter accommodating some 50 persons is available for members who may be on business in the building during an air raid and for the Institution Staff.

The normal loan service of books from the Library is also available for the use of members.

ELECTION, ADMISSION, AND EXAMINATIONS.

Copies of the Forms required in connexion with proposals for Election to Corporate Membership, recommendations for Admission to Studentship and by Students for entry for the Associate Membership Examination may be obtained on application to the Secretary, who will be pleased at all times to deal with enquiries on these matters.

Students who wish to enter for the April, 1940, Associate Membership Examination at home, which is to be held from the 15th to the 19th inclusive, of that month, are reminded that their completed application to attend should be in the Secretary's hands by the 14th February.

CHARLES HAWKSLEY PRIZE.

The following subjects have been set for the competition to be adjudged March, 1940 :—

- A combined underground garage and air-raid shelter.
- A water-tower.

The Prize, of the value of £150, is awarded for the best design of an engineering structure combining artistic merit with excellence of constructional design. Students and Associate Members under 30 years of age are eligible to compete, and full particulars regarding the competition, with details of the subjects set, may be obtained from the Secretary.

Designs must be submitted to the Secretary by the 29th February, 1940.

C. C. LINDSAY CIVIL ENGINEERING SCHOLARSHIPS.

Regulations for the award of these Scholarships, sanctioned by the Board of Education, may be obtained on application to the Honorary Secretary of the Glasgow and District Association, Mr. William MacGregor, Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., Engineering Department, The University, Glasgow, W.2. Eligibility for the award of these scholarships, which are each of the value of not less than £25 per annum, is confined to Students of The Institution who are members of the Glasgow and District Association of The Institution and are British subjects of Scottish parentage.

TRANSFERS, ELECTIONS, AND ADMISSIONS.

Since the 21st November, 1939, the following elections have taken place :

<i>Meeting.</i>	<i>Member.</i>	<i>Associate Members.</i>
19 Dec.	1	36

and during the same period the Council have transferred six Associate Members to the class of Members, and have admitted eighty-two Students.

DEATHS AND RESIGNATIONS.

The Council have received, with regret, intimation of the following deaths and resignations :—

DEATHS.

DOWNING, George Elliot. (E. 1893. T. 1903.)	<i>Member.</i>
HEMINGS, Francis William. (E. 1914.)	"
TENNING, William John. (E. 1926.)	"
REDAY, Harry John. (E. 1927.)	"
ENTER, Gilbert Macintyre. (E. 1888. T. 1912.)	"
TOUCHE, James Norman Dignes. (E. 1902.)	"
CHOLSON, Sir John Rumney, C.M.G. (E. 1897. T. 1903.)	"
ELLSHEAR, Walter. (E. 1882. T. 1892.)	"
ORTHINGTON, William Barton, D.Sc., B.Sc. (E. 1880. T. 1884.)	"
<i>Past-President.</i>	"
YATT, James William, F.C.H. (E. 1883. T. 1906.)	"
PLAND, George Dyson. (E. 1915.)	<i>Associate Member.</i>
DLEB, William Henry. (E. 1918.)	" "
TT, Lorenzo, C.M.G. (E. 1887.)	" "
FF, George Andrew Middlemiss. (E. 1891.)	" "
IG DE LA BELLACASA Y SAUCHEZ, Narciso. (E. 1893.)	" "
ITH, John Michael James. (E. 1915.)	" "

RESIGNATIONS.

	Member.
BERRY, Charles Seager. (E. 1910. T. 1914.)	"
BOOTHBY, Basil Tanfield Berridge. (E. 1904. T. 1914.)	"
BRADLEY, Godfrey Thomas. (E. 1912.)	"
LACEY, Ernest Matthew. (E. 1893. T. 1899.)	"
LAWTON, Harold, F.C.H. (E. 1932.)	"
ROTHERA, Sir Percy, O.B.E. (E. 1910.)	"
TAYLOR, Lionel Percy Duncuft, O.B.E. (E. 1911.)	"
WHITLEY, Henry Stuart Beville. (E. 1921.)	"
WILMSHURST, Thomas Percival, M.B.E. (E. 1927.)	"
AMAN, Frederick Theodor. (E. 1897.)	Associate Member
ANTHONY, Adam Charles Eric. (E. 1919.)	" "
BOND, Herbert Ivo. (E. 1905.)	" "
CAMERON, Arthur. (E. 1901.)	" "
CARMICHAEL, John Samuel, B.A., B.E. (E. 1920.)	" "
DILLEY, Wilfrid Joseph, B.Sc. (E. 1900.)	" "
DUNCAN, Harry. (E. 1907.)	" "
FADELLE, Joseph Edward. (E. 1904.)	" "
GEEN, George Purdon, M.C. (E. 1910.)	" "
GRAY, George David, B.A.I. (E. 1896.)	" "
GRIFFIN, Noel Henry Rose. (E. 1908.)	" "
HAIGH, William Henry. (E. 1902.)	" "
HUBBARD, Alexander Egerton. (E. 1920.)	" "
LYONS, Henry Montagu. (E. 1926.)	" "
OKELL, Cyril. (E. 1918.)	" "
PINCOMBE, William Edwin. (E. 1896.)	" "
ROYLE, Frederick Murray. (E. 1897.)	" "
SMITH, Alan Carrick. (E. 1921.)	" "
SOUTHEY, Frederick. (E. 1900.)	" "
STURGEON, Henry Curran. (E. 1913.)	" "
WARREN, William Walter. (E. 1908.)	" "
WOLSELEY-LEWIS, Frank Thomas. (E. 1899.)	" "
HENRICI, Major Ernst Olaf, R.E. (ret.). (E. 1908.)	Associate.
HARVEY, William Arthur Henwood, B.A. (A. 1937.)	Student.
PARTRIDGE, Thomas Michael. (A. 1936.)	"
TAMBE, Ram Vasudeo, B.Sc. (A. 1936.)	"

RECENT ADDITIONS TO THE LIBRARY.

[Journals, Proceedings of Societies, British Standard Specifications, etc., are not included.]

AIR-DEFENCE. Statutory Rules and Orders, No. 920, 1939. "Air-Raid Shelter Revised Code." 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 6d.

ANGLES. WILSON, W. M., and J. V. COOMBE. "Fatigue Tests of Connection Angles." 1939. Illinois University Engineering Experiment Station Bulletin, Series No. 31. (Urbana.) 30 cents.

AUTOMOBILES. SCHIELDROP, E.B. "The Highway." 1939. (Hutchinson.) 5s.

In the second of the Author's series of four books on "The Conquest of Space and Time," the development of the automobile and of the internal-combustion engine is reviewed, and the history of car racing is traced from the earliest days. Statistical notes on mileage and cost of roads in Great Britain, on taxation, and on world speed records are included.

GRAPHY. *"BODMER, Johann Georg, 1786-1864." (Gedenkfeier.)

A privately-printed account of the proceedings at the memorial meeting in Zurich, on 30 May, 1939, to honour the seventy-fifth anniversary of the death of the great Swiss scientist.

BRUNTON, J. "1812-1899. John Brunton's Book, being the Memories of John Brunton, Engineer, from a manuscript in his own hand written for his grandchildren and now first printed. Introduction by Professor J. H. Clapham." 1939. (Cambridge University Press.) 7s. 6d.

*SAUL, A. R. L. "James Brindley and his Staffordshire Associations." Reprint from North Staffordshire Field Club Transactions. (Stoke-on-Trent.) 1939.

EDGES. FLAMENT HENNEBIQUE, R. "Photo-Elasticimetry: its application to the measurement of deformation of Bridges." 1939. (French Society of Civil Engineers, British Section, 82, Victoria Street, S.W.1.) No price.

Government of India, Railway Department, Railway Board. "19th Report of Bridge Standards Committee 3rd-11th Jan., 1939." 1939. (Delhi.) No price.

UILDING ESTATES. HOWKINS, F. "Development of Private Building Estates." 2nd ed. 1938. *Estates Gazette*. 16s. 6d.

TOGGRAPHY. RAISZ, E. "General Cartography." 1938. (McGraw-Hill.) 26s. 3d.

AL. Illinois University Engineering Experiment Station Circular, Series No. 39. "Papers presented at 5th Short Course on Coal Utilization." 1939. (Urbana.) 50 cents.

LUMNS. BEGG, R. B. H. "Charts for Concrete Column Design." 1939. Virginia Polytechnic Institution Engineering Experiment Station Series, Bulletin No. 40. (Blacksburg, Va.) 25 cents.

CRETE. ANDERSON, P. "Square Sections of Reinforced Concrete under Thrust and Nonsymmetrical Bending." 1939. University of Minnesota Engineering Experiment Station Bulletin No. 14. (Minneapolis.) Gratis.

VINING ROD. MABY, J. C., and T. B. FRANKLIN. "The Physics of the Divining Rod." 1939. (Bell.) 21s.

A detailed physical explanation is given of dowsing, or divination by rod and pendulum, with a mathematical theory. Experimental investigations are described, and applications in the field are discussed.

YPT. BALL, J. "Contribution to the Geography of Egypt." 1939. Egypt Ministry of Finance, Survey and Mines Dept., publication. (Government Press, Cairo.) 10s. 6d.

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC WORKS. "Means of Controlling and Distributing the Water-Supply of Egypt." (Cairo.) 1939. No price.

ELECTRICAL MACHINES. CALVEET, J. F. "Amplitudes of Magnetomotive Force Harmonics for Fractional-Slot Windings of Three-Phase Machines." 1939. Iowa Engineering Experiment Station, Bulletin No. 142. (Ames, Iowa.) Gratis.

ENGINEER, The. STEINMAN, D. B. "The Place of the Engineer in Civilization." A series of addresses, 1939. North Carolina State College Record, vol. 38, No. II. (Raleigh.) No price.

ESTIMATING. DAVIES, B. P. "Estimating for Buildings and Public Works." 9th revised ed. 1939. (Cardiff.) 25s.

ANS. See PUMPS.

RE AND FIRE PREVENTION. *MORRIS, C. C. B. "Fire!" 1939. (Blackie.) 12s. 6d.

HOUSING. WICHERS, H. E. "Low Cost Homes." 1939. Kansas State College Engineering Experiment, Station Bulletin No. 38. (Manhattan, Kansas) Gratis.

HYGIENE. FLETCHER, Sir B. and H. P. "Architectural Hygiene or Sanitary Science as applied to Buildings." 7th ed. 1939. (Pitman.) 12s. 6d.

INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS. *APPLEYARD, R. "History of the Institution of Electrical Engineers." 1939. (I.E.E.) 18s. 6d.

MACHINES. TOFT, L., and A. T. J. KERSEY. "Theory of Machines." 4th ed. 1939. (Pitman.) 12s. 6d.

MAPS. *See* CARTOGRAPHY.

MATERIALS. WHITE, A. H. "Engineering Materials." 1939. (McGraw-Hill) 30s.

This book is intended primarily as a text-book for engineering students who have had the usual grounding in chemistry, but it also includes a systematic presentation of recent advances in the field of materials, which is intended to interest practising engineers.

MECHANICS. THORNTON, D. L. "Mechanics applied to Vibrations and Balancing." 1939. (Chapman and Hall.) 36s.

The Author demonstrates the important bearing of unbalanced machinery in general, and of engines in particular, upon the vibratory motion of foundations and supports for such machinery, and discusses the design of buildings to resist earthquakes, including the problems of their foundations.

NATIONAL PHYSICAL LABORATORY. "Abstracts of Papers published in the year 1938." 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 1s.

PHOTO-ELASTICIMETRY. *See* BRIDGES.

PSYCHROMETRIC-READINGS. DROPKIN, D. "The Effect of Radiation on Psychrometric Readings." 1939. Cornell University Engineering Experiment Station Bulletin No. 26.) (Ithaca, N.Y.) 60 cents.

PUBLIC HEALTH. "Public Health Services, Congress and Exhibition. 6th Congress, 1938. Report." 1938. (13, Victoria Street, S.W.1.) 7s. 6d.

PUBLIC SPEAKING. TUCKER, S. M. "Public Speaking for Technical Men." 1939. (McGraw-Hill.)

PUBLIC UTILITY RATING. NASH, L. R. "Public Utility Rate Structures." 1939. (McGraw-Hill.) 26s. 3d.

PUMPS. O'BRIEN, M.P., and R. G. FOLSOM. "The Design of Propeller Pumps and Fans." 1939. University of California Publications in Engineering, vol. 4 No. 1. 1939. (Cambridge University Press.) 50 cents.

RADIATION. *See* PSYCHROMETRIC-READINGS.

REPAIR-SHOPS. DYER, H. J. "The Mechanic's Repair-Shop Manual." 1939. (P. Marshall.) 2s. 6d.

ROADS. MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT. Experimental Work on Roads. "Report for 1938-1939 of the Experimental Work on Highways (Technical) Committee." 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 2s. 6d.

SCIENCE. PLEDGE, H. T. "Science since 1500. A Short History of Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology." 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 7s. 6d.

In view of the increasing number of manuals on the history of special scientific subjects published by the Science Museum, this co-ordinating survey has been prepared for the use of students and research workers.

ENCE. TAYLOR, F. S. "A Short History of Science." 1939. (Heinemann.) 8s. 6d.

The scientific attainments of prehistoric man, of the Greeks and Arabians, of the Middle Ages, and of the modern world are reviewed, with the object of demonstrating the changing attitude of men to science, and of science to the external world, throughout the ages. More than fifty illustrations of historic scientific apparatus and experiments are included.

SHEET METAL WORK. COOKSON, W. and A. BOLD. "The Elements of Sheet Metal Work." 1939. (Tech. Press.) 6s.

STEEL. SMITH, J. O. "The Effect of Range of Stress on the Torsional Fatigue Strength of Steel." 1939. Illinois University Engineering Experiment Station Bulletin, Series No. 316. (Urbana.) 45 cents.

TIMBER. D.S.I.R. Forest Products Research. "Handbook of Home Grown Timbers." 2nd ed. 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 2s.

— D.S.I.R. Forest Products Research. Cox, H. A: *Ed.* "Handbook of Empire Timbers." 1939. (H.M.S.O.) 3s. 6d.

WATER PURIFICATION. COX, C. R. "Water Purification for the Practical Man." 1938. (Case-Shepperd Pub'g. Corp., 24, West 40th St., New York City.) 6s.

A handbook of laboratory practice in the waterworks plant, intended for persons who have not had special training in chemistry and bacteriology. The fundamental principles in the supervision of public water-supplies and the control of water-purification equipment are reviewed, and the practical application of test results in routine control is explained.

WATER SUPPLY. HOOVER, C. P. "Water Supply and Treatment." 3rd ed. 1938. Bulletin No. 211, National Lime Association, Washington, D.C. 50 cents.

This is a practical discussion of water-supplies and methods of treatment, for the use of city officials, civic organizations, and industrialists, and a work of reference for plant operators, engineers, and students, based upon operating experience at Columbus, Ohio.

See also EGYPT.

WIRELESS. INGRAM, G. W. "Radio Interference Suppression." 1939. (*Electrical Review.*) 5s.

(* The foregoing books, with the exception of those marked with an asterisk, may be borrowed from the Loan Library.)

LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS.

MEETING.

Notice of the following meeting of the Glasgow and District Association has been received, and any inquiry regarding it should be addressed to Mr. William McGregor, B.Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., Engineering Department, The University, Glasgow, W.2.

1940.

Jan. 26.—Vernon Harcourt Lecture. "The Construction of Deep-Water Quays" by A. C. Gardner, M. Inst. C.E. (To be delivered at the Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders in Scotland, 39, Elmbank Crescent, Glasgow, at 6.30 p.m. Tea at 6 p.m.)

REPORTS.

Edinburgh and District Association.

On Wednesday, 13 December, a lecture, illustrated by lantern slides on "German Waterworks Practice" was given by Mr. John Bowman, M. Inst. C.E.

Northern Ireland Association.

On Monday, 27 November, Mr. N. M. Brydon, B.Sc., M. Inst. C.E. read a Paper on "The Engineer and Post-War Reconstruction."

Yorkshire Association.

The following meetings have been held:—Saturday, 25 November, when there was a general discussion on "A Code of Practice," introduced by Professor J. Husband, M.Eng., M. Inst. C.E., Mr. H. C. Husband, B.Eng., and Mr. G. McLean Gibson, O.B.E., Assoc. MM. Inst. C.E.; Saturday, 9 December, when a Paper on "The York Passenger Station Extension" was read by Mr. H. Ormiston, B.Sc., Assoc. M. Inst. C.E.
